

**School of Education**

**Lecturers' Perspectives on English Medium Instruction (EMI)  
practice in Indonesian Higher Education**

**Nurmala Elmin Simbolon**

**This thesis is presented for  
the Degree of Doctor of Education  
of  
Curtin University**

**July 2016**

## **Declaration**

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgment has been made. This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

Signed:

Date: 29th July 2016

## Table of Contents

<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS</b>	<b>I</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b>	<b>VI</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b>	<b>VII</b>
<b>ABSTRACT</b>	<b>VIII</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b>	<b>IX</b>
<b>CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>1</b>
1.0 Introduction	1
1.1 Background	1
1.2 Context for the current research	5
1.3 The research problem	6
1.4 Research objectives	7
1.5 Research approach	7
1.6 Significance of the research study	7
1.7 Organisation of the thesis	8
<b>CHAPTER 2: THE CONTEXT FOR THE CURRENT STUDY</b>	<b>9</b>
2.0 Introduction	9
2.1 Indonesian HE system	9
2.2 Internationalisation of HE institutions in Indonesia	14
2.2.1 International classes	15
2.2.2 Bilingual classes	16
2.3 The role of English in education in Indonesia	20
2.4 Pondasi University	21
2.4.1 The structure	22
2.4.2 EMI and English courses	25
2.5 Summary of the chapter	26
<b>CHAPTER 3: EMI PRACTICE AND LECTURERS' PERSPECTIVES: A REVIEW OF LITERATURE</b>	<b>27</b>
3.0 Introduction	27
3.1 The foundational pedagogy of EMI	27
3.1.1 Bilingual Education	27
3.1.2 CLIL: the theoretical framework of EMI practice	30

Models	31
Approaches	34
Content learning	35
Language learning	36
Integration of content and language learning	39
3.2 EMI practices in global contexts	39
3.2.1 EMI practice in Europe	39
3.2.2 EMI practice in Asia	41
3.2.3 EMI practice in Indonesia	43
3.3 EMI practice	44
3.3.1 Terminology related to EMI practice	44
3.3.2 EMI classroom Practices	45
3.3.3 The benefits of EMI practice	49
3.3.4 The challenges of EMI practice	49
3.3.5 Support for EMI practice	50
3.4 The conceptual framework of the study	51
3.5 Summary of the chapter	53
<b>CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b>	<b>54</b>
4.0 Introduction	54
4.1 Research approach	54
4.2 Research paradigm	56
4.3 Research setting	58
4.4 Phase one of the research	58
4.4.1 Sample selection	58
4.4.2 Data collection	60
Focus group interviews	61
Individual interviews	64
4.4.3 Data analysis	65
Thematic analysis	65
Multimodal analysis	68
4.4.4 Trustworthiness	70
4.5 Phase two of the research	71
4.5.1 Sample selection	71
4.5.2 Questionnaire development	72

4.5.3 Questionnaire administration	73
4.5.3 Data analysis	73
4.5.4 Validity and reliability	75
Validity	75
Reliability	76
4.6 Ethical considerations	76
4.7 Summary of the chapter	77
<b>CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS</b>	<b>78</b>
5.0 Introduction	78
5.1 Findings from phase one of the study	78
5.1.1 The understandings of EMI	78
Terms used to refer EMI	78
The ways to introduce EMI	80
The ways to practise EMI	82
5.1.2 The challenges of EMI practice	99
Low motivation	99
English skills	100
EMI Teaching skills	103
Staffing levels	104
5.1.3 The benefits of EMI practice	105
Students' improved English skills	105
Student's increased learning motivation	106
Graduate employability	108
Lecturers' improved English skills	109
Lecturers' improved teaching skills	111
University certification	112
5.1.4 Support needed for implementing EMI	113
Minimum English requirement	115
Bridging course	116
International event programs	117
Parallel classes	118
Content-based English course	120
5.1.5 Implications for the implementation of EMI	122
5.1.6 Summary of the findings of the Phase One study	125

5.2 Findings from Quantitative Phase of the Study	127
5.2.1 Lecturers' knowledge about EMI	127
Terms used to refer to EMI	128
Practical issues in EMI classrooms	128
The benefits of EMI	131
Support for EMI practice	134
5.2.2 Lecturers' demographic background and their views on EMI	136
5.2.3 Summary of the findings of the Phase Two study	138
5.3 Summary of the chapter	138
<b>CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION</b>	<b>140</b>
6.0 Introduction	140
6.1 Lecturers' perspectives on EMI practice	140
6.1.1 EMI terms	140
6.1.2 EMI courses	144
6.1.3 Theoretical and practical approaches to EMI	146
Language use in EMI classroom	146
Assessment	148
Learning materials for EMI	150
6.1.4 Benefits of EMI	152
6.1.5 Support for EMI practice	155
6.1.6 Implications for the implementations of EMI	158
6.2 Summary	159
<b>CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS</b>	<b>160</b>
7.0 Introduction	160
7.1 Summary of key findings	160
7.2 Implications and recommendations	161
7.3 Limitations of the study	162
7.4 Recommendations for further research	163
7.5 Conclusion	163
<b>REFERENCES</b>	<b>165</b>
<b>APPENDIX 1</b>	<b>184</b>
<b>APPENDIX 2</b>	<b>186</b>
<b>APPENDIX 3</b>	<b>187</b>
<b>APPENDIX 4</b>	<b>189</b>

<b>APPENDIX 5</b>	<b>190</b>
<b>APPENDIX 6</b>	<b>191</b>
<b>APPENDIX 7</b>	<b>193</b>
<b>APPENDIX 8</b>	<b>194</b>

## List of Tables

Table 1: Types of HE	10
Table 2: The history of Indonesian HE curriculum over the last two decades	11
Table 3: Knowledge and skills in the National Standards of Indonesian HE	13
Table 4: The departments at Pondasi University (Pondasi University, 2015e)	23
Table 5: Assessment of students' learning*	24
Table 6: Bilingual education theoretical frameworks and practices	28
Table 7: Studies focusing on the lecturers' views on practical matters in the EMI classroom	46
Table 8: Categories of focus group interviews	59
Table 9: Profiles of lecturers in the individual interviews	60
Table 10: The number of the lecturers with their age category participating in the survey	72
Table 11: The number of the lecturers with their career level category participating in the survey	72
Table 12: The number of the lecturers with their educational background category participating in the survey	72
Table 13: The number of the lecturers with their EMI teaching experience category participating in the survey	72
Table 14: Descriptive statistics for each scale in the questionnaire	74
Table 15: KMO and Bartlett's Test	75
Table 16: Reliability coefficients of (Cronbach's Alphas) of the instrument	76
Table 17: Correlations: Issues in practical ways in the EMI classroom	129
Table 18: Correlations: Issues in the benefits and relevant support for EMI practice	133
Table 19: Correlations: Support for EMI implementation	135
Table 20: Correlations between the demographic background of the lecturers and their views on the issues related to their EMI practice (N = 109)	137



## **List of Figures**

Figure 1: Continuum of CLIL models (Ball, 2009)	32
Figure 2: The language triptych (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 36)	37
Figure 3: The conceptual framework of the study	52
Figure 4: Research procedures	56
Figure 5: Components of data analysis: interactive model (Miles & Huberman, 1994).	67
Figure 6: The theoretical framework of the in-depth interviews using multimodal analysis.	70
Figure 7: Lecturers' perspectives on EMI practice in Indonesian HE	127

## **ABSTRACT**

English Medium Instruction (EMI) is increasingly used as a teaching approach in many international contexts. It is part of a global move towards the internationalisation of higher education and many Indonesian universities have adopted this practice. This case study examines lecturers' perspectives on EMI practice in one Indonesian university where it has only recently been adopted. The development of a conceptual framework for understanding lecturers' views was based on the pedagogy of bilingual education. A mixed-methods approach was used and it was conducted in two phases – the first being qualitative and the second quantitative. In the first phase five focus group and five individual interviews were conducted. In the second phase a large scale survey was undertaken using a purpose designed questionnaire. Interview data were analysed thematically; multimodal analysis was also used to analyse the individual data for in-depth exploration of lecturers' meaning about specific themes. The questionnaire was analysed statistically using SPSS version 20. The study found agreement from the lecturers in both phases of the study about a number of key issues, but challenges were also identified. A number of implications for future practice are outlined, and recommendations to support implementation are also made.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Doing Doctoral study and completing this thesis have been a spiritual and intellectual journey for me. It was a spiritual journey that involved my dialogue with my Lord, Jesus Christ each day. I know that he has enabled me to complete this study. So, I would like to express my great gratitude to for guiding and comforting me during this journey.

With regards to this intellectual journey, I am grateful that I have been surrounded by professional academics in completing this study. First of all, I would like to thank Professor Rhonda Oliver and Dr Paul Mercieca, my supervisors. I am deeply grateful for their devoted supervision, support and encouragement. Their quality feedback and confidence in me have been critical to my thesis writing. I have learned a great deal from them.

My thanks, too, to Associate Professor Katie Dunworth and Dr Ilan Zagoria for their guidance and support during the first stage of my study.

I owe a debt of gratitude to Dr Anna Alderson. Her continual motivation helped me complete my study on time. In memory of her, this degree is useless without remembering the wise words she whispered when I needed to move forward.

I feel a tremendous sense of obligation to my husband, Donald, and my daughter, Michelle. They also provided both personal and spiritual support to me. Their kind understanding, love, and patience as well as their continued prayers made this Doctoral thesis possible.

I am also indebted to my brethren in Wilson Gospel Chapel, especially my sisters in KYB group: Ms. Coffey, Ms. Vivienne, Val, Debbi, and Choy, who ceaselessly prayed for me and my family while staying in Australia.

I am grateful for my brother and sister, Helmut and Angelika. Their constant support and prayers during my study have helped complete this Doctoral study.

I also would like to extend my gratitude to the Indonesian government, particularly, the Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education, Directorate General of Resources for Science, Technology, and Higher Education, for granting me a scholarship to do my Doctoral study at Curtin University.

Also, my thanks to the School of Education and Faculty of Humanities (Curtin University) administrative support staff for their help: Kerry Goodwin, Research Support Office, and Zalila Abdul Rahman, Julie Lunn and Lynn Thet Mar, Office of Research and Graduate Studies and Curtin security staff for making my stay at Curtin University a comfortable experience.

Finally, I dedicate this thesis to my mother in loving memory of her.

## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.0 Introduction**

This chapter provides the background of the study. Section 1.1 gives a description of the background to the study, and in particular introduces EMI issues. The context of the current study is provided in Section 1.2. In section 1.3 the main problem addressed by the study is presented. In sections 1.4 the aims of study are given and in 1.5 the approach of the research study is described. Then the significance of the study is presented in section 1.6. Finally, Section 1.7 outlines the organisation of the thesis in detail.

### **1.1 Background**

Globalisation has spurred the use of English as a communication instrument in many international contexts (Jenkins, 2003). Several reasons for the increase of English use in the world were described nearly 20 years ago by Crystal (1997). For example, the majority of the information in scientific, technological, and academic fields (Ammon, 2001) stored in electronic systems is in English and as such people from non-English-speaking countries need English to access it. Furthermore, the dominant nature of economic and entertainment activity, much of which occurs in English, has contributed to the growth of English (Crystal, 1997). This is further enhanced by the growing number of internet-based activities conducted in English (Jenkins, Cogo, & Dewey, 2011).

Education sector has been influenced significantly by the globalisation of English. There are a growing number of educational institutions in non-English speaking countries which have implemented teaching programs, for instance EMI, to improve learners' English achievements (Coleman, 2006; Graddol, 2006). It should be noted that EMI, the focus of the current study, is only one model of bilingual teaching (Baker, 2011). EMI is used with the goal of improving students' English to enable them to better compete in the global labour market (Sistem Penyelenggaraan, 2007; Doiz, Sierra, & Lasagabaster, 2013; Gill & Kirkpatrick, 2013). It involves teaching some

curriculum content through the students' second or foreign language and in particular, in English. In some contexts, content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is used as an alternative term to refer to EMI (Floris, 2014; Yang, 2015).

Some research studies have found positive outcomes from the implementation of such language programs. For example, Seikkula-Leino's (2007) study found that students' motivation increased even though there was no significant difference in their achievement in comprehending the content compared to the students with first language (L1) only instruction. Lasagabaster's (2011) also found that the students' motivation increased and this contributed to their English learning progress. Similarly, Normand-Marconnet's (2013) study showed that the increased motivation had contributed to positive outcomes in bilingual students' writing in their first language compared to their monolingual counterparts. Yang's (2015) study showed a positive correlation between the students' significant improvement in their receptive linguistic skills and their improved productive English competence. Sultan, Borland, and Eckersley's (2012) study of EMI practice at the school level indicated that in their national English examination students in an EMI program performed better in terms of their grades than their counterparts who were enrolled in a non-EMI program. They attributed this outcome to their improved attitude towards using English in and outside school.

In Europe, universities have implemented EMI based on the Bologna Process, which was initiated in 1999 and enunciated the first rationale for EMI practice in Europe. The Bologna Process was the European response to the worldwide marketization of higher education (HE) institutions (Coleman, 2006) and the policy has had a significant impact. Wachter and Maiworm (2008) found that in 2007 there were more than 2,400 English-taught programs in continental Europe provided by over 400 HE institutions, and the Netherlands and Northern Europe had a bigger number of English-taught programs. A study conducted by Alps (see Wachter & Maiworm, 2008) found there were 774 English medium degree programs in the Netherlands, 415 in Germany, 235 in Finland, and 123 in Sweden.

In different settings, such as China, many HE institutions have been instructed to use English as the main teaching medium for selected professional subjects, including

information technology, biotechnology, new-materials technology, finance, foreign trade, economics, and law (Cui & Xiaoqiong, 2007). This has occurred in direct response to that country's expansion in its international trade after becoming a member of the World Trade Organization (Cui & Xiaoqiong, 2007). In a similar vein Japan had admitted almost 150,000 international students in 2011 by offering EMI programs (Hou, Morse, Chiang, & Chen, 2013). Further, Welch (in Hou et al., 2013) states that Taiwan, encouraged by its president, will attempt to enrol more than 100,000 international students by 2020.

In Indonesia, the context of the current research, the government initiated EMI instruction at the school level. As stated in the document of Sistem Penyelenggaraan (2007), the aim of introducing EMI in Indonesia is to facilitate English language learning (Doiz et al., 2013; Tong & Shi, 2012). That is, it is the goal of the EMI program to improve students' English proficiency (Zacharias, 2013). This is achieved by teaching courses such as Mathematics and Science in English. Through this, students are expected to have more opportunities to practise the English language (Bax, 2010). Implicit in this is the notion that the teachers of those particular subjects, as well as providing content teaching, cater for students' spoken and written English language learning needs.

This initiative was originally started in Indonesian schools, but lasted for only 7 years and officially ended in early 2013 (Ernanta, Ekatjahjana, & Ana 2013). A review of literature highlights some factors contributing to this failure at the school level. Some of the issues identified were the teachers' low level of English proficiency (Hallet, 2005) which made it challenging for them to teach in English, the teachers' lack of experience in producing English materials and the teachers' lack of training in scaffolding students' language learning (Bax, 2010; Sumitomo, Said & Mislana, 2012). Whitehead (2010) suggests that teachers' low English proficiency and lack of essential EMI training also contributed to the lack of success of EMI implementation at the school level. To overcome these difficulties some teachers used supplementary materials already translated into English, some practised a form of full English immersion, others codeswitched when teaching, and yet others developed a form where they only partially taught subjects in English. As Astika and Wahyana's (2012) study findings indicate, this variety of EMI practice reveals the teachers' lack of

confidence in their EMI teaching strategies, which is exacerbated by the fact that schools provided no guidance and support to enable the teachers to successfully use EMI.

Another issue contributing to the lack of success at the school level was the students' limited English proficiency. This resulted in challenges for them in processing information conveyed in English and in interacting with their teachers (Hadisantosa, 2010). It is further argued by Sumitomo et al., (2012) that the lack of availability of clear policy details about EMI from the Indonesian Ministry of Education contributed to the problems that occurred.

Clearly, implementing EMI is not without challenges. In addition to the problems encountered by the teachers in Indonesian schools, other studies in different contexts (e.g., Europe and other Asian countries) have also found similar problems. Klaassen and De Graaff's (2001) study of the EMI practice in Delft University of Technology in the Netherlands found that methodological and language-related challenges were common in EMI programs. Similarly, Coleman's (2006) study of EMI practice in some universities in Europe and Kırkgöz's study in Turkey (2009) concluded that students and lecturers had insufficient language skills, and that there was a need for training of the local lecturers and students in the practice of EMI. Joe and Lee's (2013) study in the Korean context provided a different perspective about EMI practice. Even when English proficiency was high, the medical students in their study still needed a lesson summary in their L1 at the completion of each EMI class. Although this may reflect the level of English competence and practices of the individual lecturer involved, it may also be that the English proficiency required by the students was insufficient for the EMI learning environment.

Notwithstanding these problems, and the fact that EMI has been phased out in schools, the use of EMI programs has recently been introduced at the university level in Indonesia. Universities that have recently introduced EMI include the University of Gadjah Mada (2016), the University of Indonesia (2016), and University of Kristen Satya Wacaya (2016). However, the practice of EMI in the Indonesian HE context is still in its infancy. As such stakeholders (both teachers and policy makers) may have a limited understanding of EMI (Bax, 2010; Coleman, 2009; Hadisantosa, 2010;



Coleman, 2011) as evidenced by the fact that supporting infrastructure and guidelines for EMI practice are still unavailable.

## **1.2 Context for the current research**

Pondasi University, which is the focus of this research study, is currently in the process of introducing EMI. Pondasi University is an Indonesian vocational state university. It has eight departments - Accounting, Business Administration, Agricultural Technology, Electronic Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Civil Engineering and Planning, Architecture Engineering and Planning, and Marine and Fisheries Science. It is implementing EMI in order to achieve the aim of being an internationally recognised vocational university by 2020 (Pondasi University, 2015a). Other initiatives have also been undertaken aimed at achieving international recognition. Firstly, a number of memoranda of understanding (MoUs) have been signed between Pondasi University and several educational institutions from different countries including Malaysia (Pondasi University, 2015c) and USA (Pondasi University, 2015d). The MoUs state that there will be cooperation between both universities in terms of conducting research projects and student and teacher exchange. Of special importance to the current study is the fact that the interaction between the members of these institutions (students and teachers) that will ensue from such collaborations is expected to be in English. In this way, some voluntary pilot EMI programs have already commenced, beginning in 2010 in the School of Information and Technology (IT), in the Electronic Engineering Department and in the Business Administration Department. The Accounting Department began its EMI program in 2012 (Pondasi University, 2015b). Each of these departments offered one bilingual class. The lecturers who volunteered to do this were willing to practice EMI in their courses. The courses included in this practice were *Quality and Management System (QMS)*, *Accounting*, *Programming 1*, and *Programming 2*. The students were selected based on their English grades in high school (i.e., those with a high level) and placed in these particular classes.

### **1.3 The research problem**

This study focuses on the lecturers' views on the issues of EMI practice in classrooms. The issues include the terms used to refer to EMI, ways to presenting EMI regarding the techniques, learning materials, and conducting assessment, benefit and challenges the lecturers might encounter when practising EMI.

As Pondasi University is at the beginning stage of implementing EMI and considering the problems previously encountered by school teachers in Indonesia when practising EMI, it is important to investigate stakeholder perceptions, particularly from the educators' perspectives, about the approach and its implementation. Clark and Peterson define perspective as 'a reflective, socially defined interpretation of experience that serves as a basis for subsequent action ... a combination of beliefs, intentions, interpretations, and behaviour that interact continually' (Pajares, 1992, p. 314). Therefore, what the teachers know and believe influences the role they play in the classroom. Based on the few studies of teachers' beliefs in Europe (Flowerdew, Li, & Miller, 1998; Tatzl, 2011; Jensen & Thogersen, 2011; Aguilar and Rodriguez, 2012; Lasagabaster, 2013) and in Asia (Gill, 2006; Zacharias, 2013; Floris, 2014), conducting a study that examines the issues of EMI practice from the teachers' perspectives on EMI practice is considered to be a worthwhile undertaking.

In addition, in the present research context, where EMI practice is still being introduced, many questions about this practice remain unanswered. Currently there is a paucity of systematic investigations on the practice including the relevance of approaches and the outcomes of the practice, (Coleman, 2009) and other emergent issues to guide its development. All of these concerns are the impetus for this current study. Furthermore, given that fact of the failure of the intent of implementing EMI at the school levels in Indonesia, the current study intended to document the issues of EMI practice at the university level. In particular, this study examines the lecturers' understanding about practical issues in EMI classrooms regarding the terms, practice, challenges and benefits of EMI when it is implemented in Pondasi University.

## **1.4 Research objectives**

The primary objective of the study is to explore the perspectives of teaching staff members (i.e., the lecturers) regarding EMI practice at Pondasi University in Indonesia. The study also investigates the relationship between the teachers' perspectives and their backgrounds.

## **1.5 Research approach**

This research includes both a large number of participants (where the pattern of their responses to questions about EMI could be determining, but also research where a thick description of the contextual reality (i.e., Pondasi University lecturers' from perceptions) could be explored. To achieve a suitable balance, a multi-method design incorporating a mixed-methods approach has been used. In the first phase, a qualitative approach was conducted to uncover the topics or themes from the lecturers. And then in the next phase, to test the representativeness of this account, a quantitative survey was administered.

## **1.6 Significance of the research study**

The study should contribute to a deeper understanding about EMI at the University of Pondasi. Moreover, the data obtained from the research should provide vital information for the University as a reflection on the initiatives concerning the implementation of EMI. While a number of studies related to the present study have been conducted in the past (Jensen & Thogersen, 2011; Aguilar & Rodriguez, 2012; Lasagabaster, 2013), the context of those studies has mostly been in Europe, where the policy regarding EMI practice has been clearly defined (Coleman, 2006), and where there is a very different socio-economic context from the present study. There are only a few studies (Zacharias, 2013; Floris, 2014) similar to the current study. Zacharias' (2013) study focused on school teachers when the policy required them to practice EMI in their classrooms, and the focus of Floris' (2014) study was on seeking the voices of the lecturers who practised EMI at a private university. Although similar in intent and focus (i.e., EMI) this current study differs from these studies in context (i.e.,

a state university) and type of teachers who participate (namely, in the future, the teachers will be conscripted into the practice, rather than being volunteers). Thus, the findings from the study will be of benefit particularly with regard to the current situation of the University. With the findings, the University will be better informed when making decisions about EMI implementation in such aspects as students and lecturers' selection procedures, and the provision of relevant support for EMI programs to be successful. Moreover, little research has been conducted on the teachers' perspectives on EMI practice in the broader context of Indonesia; hence this study further enriches the existing literature on EMI.

### **1.7 Organisation of the thesis**

This thesis consists of seven chapters. The next chapter, Chapter 2 provides a description of the context of the current study. This includes an account of the Indonesian HE system and the current situation with regards to the issue of EMI practice, which is being implemented globally. It also provides an outline of the organisation of the University and especially the role and teaching of English in that institution. Following that, the literature review is provided (Chapter 3). It gives the theoretical and experimental background to the current research. In the following chapter (4), gaps in the previous research are identified and the research questions are presented. In this way, the conceptual framework of the study is illustrated based upon those studies. This chapter also describes the methodological approach used in the study. Justification for gradual multi-method design is provided. The primary research methods - focus groups interviews, individual interviews, and the large scale instrument, a quantitative survey - are identified and the procedures followed in collecting and analysing data are stated. Key findings from both phases of the study and discussions of the analysis of the research data are presented in Chapters 5. The findings chapter includes detailed accounts and interpretation of the results, with reference to the research questions. Next the discussion chapter (Chapter 6) provides an explanation of the current findings and compares these to other relevant studies. The conclusion is provided in Chapter 7. This chapter also describes the implications of the study, and indicates its limitations and makes recommendations for practice and for further investigations.

## **CHAPTER 2: THE CONTEXT FOR THE CURRENT STUDY**

### **2.0 Introduction**

This chapter provides a description of the context in which the current study was undertaken. Firstly, it provides a broad view of Indonesian HE including a description of how the HE system is organised. The internationalisation of HE institutions in Indonesia that has occurred in recent times is explained in Section 2.2. In the next section (2.3) the role of English courses within universities in Indonesia is described. In section 2.4 an outline of the organisation of Pondasi University and the role of English at that institution is provided. The last section is a summary of the chapter.

### **2.1 Indonesian HE system**

Indonesia is a country made up of thousands of islands, with the five main islands being Java, Kalimantan (Borneo), Sumatera, Sulawesi, and Papua. Its population is approximately 230 million (Welch, 2012). There are about 81 public and 2514 private HE institutions and 3.5 million students (Soejatminah, 2009). The provision of HE education in Indonesia is managed by the Ministry of Research and Technology and Higher Education (Kementerian Riset dan Tehnology dan Pendidikan Tinggi, or Kemristekdikti). It is separate from the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, which is managed by the Ministry of Education and Culture (Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, or Kemendikbud).

The organisation of the education system in Indonesia is outlined in policy document the ‘Law of National Education No 20/2003’. This particular regulation describes the arrangement of the Indonesian education system from primary education to university level. With respect to the latter, based on their source of funding, there are two types of HE institutions in Indonesia, state and private universities. State HE institutions are fully funded and controlled by the government, although they are given autonomous and flexible authority by the government to develop their internal curriculum (The Law of National Education System of 2003, Article 24). Unlike the government-

funded universities, private sector universities are self-supporting and although they may obtain funds and technical support from the government, they are almost entirely financed by tuition fees. These self-funded education institutions are run by private organisations or independent groups, however, they still have to comply with the outlines of the national curriculum standards issued in the Law of Higher Education of 2012 Number 12. For example, they have to include such compulsory courses as Religion and the study of the Indonesian language as part of their curriculum. Compared to the state HE institutions, which have government support, private universities are less affordable for local students.

Based on the focus and level of the program offered at the various universities, the institutions can be classified as being of several types as shown in the Table 1.

Table 1: Types of HE

Types Qualifications	Academy	Polytechnics	Sekolah Tinggi (Colleges)	Institute/University
Academic/Vocational	Vocational	Vocational	Academic	Academic
Diploma/graduate/Postgraduate	Diploma	Diploma	Graduate	Graduate/postgraduate

(Nizam, 2006)

As indicated in Table 1, the Academy and Polytechnic institutes offer vocational degree and diploma programs, the only difference between the two types of institutions being the years of study and levels of qualification offered: Polytechnic institutes programs offer vocational programs up to four years duration. They also offer postgraduate qualifications whereas Academies offer undergraduate programs that mostly run for one to three years. Nursing and Police Academies belong to the latter type. In contrast, Colleges and Institutes or Universities offer academic programs. Colleges offer four-year undergraduate degree programs, whereas Institutes and Universities offer four-year undergraduate, two-year master's degree programs, and three-year doctoral programs. Colleges are distinguished from other types of HE institutions in that they only focus on one particular field of study. Sekolah Tinggi Agama Islam (Islam Religion College) and Sekolah Tinggi Kesehatan (The Science of

Health College) are examples of these. In contrast, Institutes and Universities offer more than one field of study. Universities have a broader variety of fields of study (e.g., social sciences, IT, and natural sciences), while Institutes offer only one field of study. Bandung Technology Institute (Institut Teknologi Bandung or ITB) is one example. This Institute focuses on technology including maritime technology, visual technology, and physics. Whilst this categorization seems clear cut and there are clear differences between vocational and academic programs, HE institutions, by law, are allowed to offer a range of programs (Nizam, 2006).

As indicated previously, what is taught in these HE institutions is outlined in the Indonesian HE curriculum. Over the last two decades this curriculum has undergone three major revisions. Table 2 briefly summarises the history of the curriculum of Indonesian HE over this period.

Table 2: The history of Indonesian HE curriculum over the last two decades

1994	2000/2002	2012
National Curriculum (No 056/U/1994)	Core and Institutional Curriculum (232/U/200 and 045/U/2002)	Higher Education Curriculum (UUPT No 12/2012 and Perpres No 8/2012)
Kurikulum Berbasis Isi (KBK, or Content-based Curriculum)	Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi (KBK), or Competence-based Curriculum	Kurikulum Berbasis Kerangka Kualifikasi Nasional Indonesia (KKNI), or Indonesian Qualification Framework (IQF)-based Curriculum

(Translated from Sailah, 2014)

The first major curriculum amendment occurred in 1994. Reflecting the national agenda of Indonesia at that time and growing international trends in education, the curriculum was changed from more traditional disciplinary goals to a focus on certain outcomes and in particular the development of skills in science and technology (what was called IPTEKS curriculum). It was a content based curriculum (known in Indonesia as Kurikulum Berbasis Isi - KBI). The decision to do this was made by the Minister of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia (Number 056/U/1994) who provided the guidelines both for the HE Curriculum and for the students' learning outcomes and assessments. Within this curriculum, compulsory subjects were specified in existing HE courses.

In 2000 another major amendment to the curriculum was made. This action was based on the recommendations of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the curriculum was reconstructed around key learnings which are described as a four-pillar concept. These pillars include: *learning to know*, *learning to do*, *learning to be*, and *learning to live together* (Delors et al., 1996). This curriculum was competence based, or as it is labelled in Indonesia ‘Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi’ (KBK). The aim of such a curriculum was to link the universities, professional societies, and other stakeholders who would employ the universities’ graduates. Thus, the universities’ graduates were expected to be equipped with competences relevant to industry needs.

The current curriculum in Indonesian HE was introduced in 2012. This is titled the Kurikulum Pendidikan Tinggi (KDIKTI) and it adopts an Indonesian Qualification Framework (IQF)-based curriculum. The definition of this curriculum is given in the policy document of the Regulation of President of the Republic of Indonesia Number 8, 2012, Article 1, which states that:

Kerangka Kualifikasi Nasional Indonesia, yang selanjutnya disingkat KKNi, adalah kerangka penjenjangan kualifikasi kompetensi yang dapat menyandingkan, menyetarakan dan mengintegrasikan antara bidang pendidikan dan bidang pelatihan kerja serta pengalaman kerja dalam rangka pemberian pengakuan kompetensi kerja sesuai dengan struktur pekerjaan di berbagai sektor.

*The Indonesian Qualification Framework (IQF) is the stratification framework of the qualification of competence that can be matched, levelled and integrated between education and job training and work experience in connection with the granting of recognition of the competence of the work in accordance with the structure of jobs in a wide range of sectors.*

Although it is labelled the IQF, the key imperative underpinning it is the need to address the issue of globalisation. As indicated in Buku Kurikulum Pendidikan Tinggi (Sailah, 2014), globalisation impacts on the mobility of goods and human resources worldwide. With the enactment of the IQF-based curriculum, Indonesian HE



institutions are expected to produce graduates who can compete in international job markets. In terms of addressing the global movement of its graduates, the Indonesian government has signed mutual recognition agreements with a number of professions including engineers, architects, accountants, and those involved in the tourism industry (Sailah, 2014).

There were also more specific rationales for the shift in the discourse and name of the KBK to KDIKTI. These reasons include, first of all, an absence of parameters for measuring KBK, which made it difficult to assess the qualification of graduates from certain programs. Now the IQF has a hierarchy of qualifications from Levels 1 to 9 and HE graduates are deemed to be at Levels 3 to 9. Table 3 outlines these parameters and the descriptors of each level, in particular the depth and width of knowledge and skills. These descriptors were derived from The Ministerial Regulation of 2014 Number 49 on Graduate Competency Standards, which outlined a national standard for each Indonesian HE institution (Standar Nasional Perguruan Tinggi, SNPT).

Table 3: Knowledge and skills in the National Standards of Indonesian HE

Level	Descriptors	Qualifications
9	The philosophy of the scientific field of specific knowledge and skills	Doctoral
8	The theory and application of the theory of the field of specific knowledge and skills	Masters
7	The application of the theory of the field of specific knowledge and skills	Professional
6	The general theoretical concept of the field of specific knowledge and skills and the specific concept in the field of theoretical knowledge and the skills in depth	Diploma 4/Bachelors
5	The general theoretical concept of the field of specific knowledge and skills	Diploma 3
4	The principle and basic knowledge and skills in a particular field of expertise	Diploma 2
3	The concept of general knowledge and complete operational skills	Diploma 1

(Translated from Sailah, 2014)

The shift in the focus of the learning outcomes provides detailed descriptors at each level of the curriculum in relation to attitudes, values, knowledge, responsibility, and rights. That is, each descriptor indicates the depth and the level of learning outcome in

accordance with the level of the program. Table 3 (above) exemplifies this, particularly in terms of the learning outcomes related to knowledge.

In addition, this new Indonesian HE curriculum is underpinned by a shift of teaching approach from teacher-centred learning (TCL) to student-centred learning (SCL). According to this view, the lecturing style of TCL is no longer considered appropriate to address the students' learning needs, especially their need to respond to globalisation. In its place SCL requires students to actively participate in the learning process. For example, instead of teachers providing all of the learning materials and content, they provide only some of the information and the students can obtain the rest from other learning resources (Sailah, 2014). While SCL encompasses a number of broader issues surrounding teaching and learning, one crucial issue, which needs special attention in the current research context, is the change in the curriculum. This process entails an internal review of current lecturers' practice in Indonesian HE institutions.

## **2.2 Internationalisation of HE institutions in Indonesia**

In addition to the curriculum changes, other aspects of Indonesian HE have also felt the impact of globalisation (Albatch & Teichler, 2001). In particular, there is now a drive from the various universities to obtain international recognition. However, it should be noted that the process of internationalisation in Indonesian HE education is only at the initial stage. To date the steps that universities have taken in this regard include making formal agreements with other countries and collaborating with related international organisations, undertaking offshore programs, setting up student exchange and international research collaboration, the internationalisation of the curricula, recruitment of international students, and the internationalisation of faculty members (Australian Vice-Chancellors Committee, 2001). There are also international activities for academic and management staff designed to improve their quality and their perspectives on the global issues. They are managed in a program, called 'Program Academic Recharging (PAR)', which ranges from conferences or seminars to further study (Soejatminah, 2009). Such activities align closely with the goals of implementing the IQF curriculum (Sailah, 2014). This alignment appears to reflect the nature of collaboration being developed for the intent of HE internationalisation. Despite these

various attempts, a number of problems remain, including how this can be effectively achieved and translated into deliverables for students.

One key challenge currently faced by Indonesian HE institutions in relation to internationalisation is outlined by Soejatminah (2009). Her argument centres on the poor level of information and communication technology (ICT) available, particularly in English (e.g., websites, digital library, e-learning/papers and forums/networks). For example, among the 50 promising Indonesian universities included in her study, Soejatminah (2009) found most of the institutions did not have a website in English. The findings showed a similar situation occurring in both public and private institutions (Soejatminah, 2009). This makes global outreach difficult, if not impossible.

Other attempts at internationalisation are directly related to the teaching of students. This includes providing international and bilingual classes where English is used, at least in part, as the medium of instruction.

### **2.2.1 International classes**

The drive for internationalisation has led universities to introduce classes to attract enrolments from overseas students. Specifically, some private universities offer international classes. International classes are ‘educational programs which are offered for students from overseas as part of their study program (translated from a Decision of the Rector of the University of Indonesia, 2005). This has been done at the following private institutions: The University of Ciputra, which offers a Double Degree Program in International Business Management (University of Ciputra, 2016) and the University of Kristen Satya Wacana which has an Indonesian Arts course (University of Kristen Satya Wacana, 2016). State universities that offer these programs include the University of Gadjah Mada (2016), the University of Indonesia (2016a), and the University of Padjajaran, which advertised a medical degree that is conducted fully in the English language (Gill & Kirkpatrick, 2013). Unlike the private HE institutions, the state universities are required to have Badan Hukum Milik Negara (BHMN) status to offer such classes.

BHMN status is granted by means of the regulation authority of the Indonesian Government. BHMN was granted to the following four universities in 2000 - the University of Indonesia, the University of Gadjah Mada, Bogor Agricultural Institute, and Bandung Institute of Technology. Since then two more universities have also received this status - the University of North Sumatera in 2003, and Indonesia University of Education in 2004. About a decade later, the University of Padjajaran received this status in 2014. The legality of this status was established through the Law of Regional Autonomy of 1999 Number 22 and addresses the issues surrounding the status of HE institutions, and in particular it gives public universities more autonomy and transparency, but demands greater accountability. This has enabled those universities granted this status to maintain their level of funding, but to also seek their own funding from other sources including from other government agencies, overseas organisations, local communities, and from internal university businesses. Guidelines for each of these BHMN universities were provided through the Regulation of the Government of the Republic of Indonesia on BHMN (Numbers 152/2000; 153/2000; 154/2000; 155/2000; 53/2003, 6/2004, and 80/2014, cited by Fahmi, 2007). This status also allows the institutions more flexibility in running their educational services, including the offering of international classes (as described above). The fees charged for these classes have contributed to the funding for these universities.

Although pedagogical approaches are not a prescribed as part of BHMN, English language is the medium of instruction in these international classes. The use of English appears to be in the form of full English instruction and its role is as the lingua franca among the multilingual students who come from various nations to participate. Some have argued that this has the potential to improve HE quality, currently an issue of considerable concern for Indonesian HE (Tadjudin, 2003, cited by Soejatminah, 2009). The argument is that with improved quality, universities are better able to attract students from overseas contributing even more funding and leading to a spiral of improvement.

### **2.2.2 Bilingual classes**

In addition to introducing ‘international classes’ programs, other universities such as, Semarang State University (Universitas Negeri Semarang, 2016), Medan State

University (Universitas Negeri Medan, 2016), and the University where the present study was conducted, Pondasi University, have introduced bilingual class programs. Bilingual classes are perceived to provide a foundation for students wishing to transition to and have success in international classes (Pondasi University, 2015c). Unlike international classes, the practice of bilingual classes is less demanding in terms of the necessary infrastructure required. For examples, the bilingual classes at the target university are voluntary and are only offered by some lecturers who have sufficient English proficiency. Furthermore, as described in Chapter 1, students who achieved a high level of English in their high school were selected and placed in these classes. In addition, the entry requirements for such classes are less demanding than for international classes. For example, the Faculty of Mathematics and Science at Universitas Negeri Medan (2016) requires minimum 400 Test of English as a Foreign English (TOEFL) scores for the prospective students of its bilingual program, which is below the score required for international classes (i.e., minimum 500 TOEFL scores, Universitas Indonesia, 2016b). Further, because of the limited L2 skills of both students and teachers, EMI practice in bilingual classes adopts only partial English instruction.

However, bilingual classes are not without problems. In her study, Floris (2014) describes the EMI class policy at one private university, highlighting how the teaching methodology was not supported by training for the lecturers. Further, due to students' limited English skills, the lecturers had to frequently codeswitch between languages (English and Indonesian) in order to ensure learner understanding of the content. Without being equipped with training in EMI teaching methods prior to practising it, those lecturers appeared unaware of systematic codeswitching (Coyle et al., 2010; Lin, 2015) to support students' L2 learning.

Despite such shortcomings, bilingual classes may provide an important first step in the process of establishing international classes in universities in Indonesia. As Knight (2003, p.2) explains, this is because

internationalisation at the national sector, and institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education.

How well this works in the case of Pondasi University is the focus of the current study and the benefits and problems with bilingual classes and EMI are explored in this context.

As described in Chapter 1, internationalisation of Indonesian educational institutions was also reflected in the government's initiative in 2006 in which EMI was introduced at the school levels (particularly in state schools). English bilingual education programs were offered in public schools ranging from primary to senior high schools, which were labelled as International Standard Bilingual Schools (Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional, or SBI). To support their implementation, the government introduced several tools to standardise SBI type schools. These included standardising of the content, and the learning processes and procedures, and developing policies around the issues of graduate attributes, human resources, funding, and facilities (The Ministerial Regulation of 2005).

This initiative was a response to a growing demand for EMI schools from local Indonesians (especially from the public schools) who saw benefits from this type of language program for their own children at that time. Prior to this policy several international schools (catering for the children of expatriates) (Zacharias, 2013) had been running EMI programs. In addition to these particular students, some local children from high-income families also attend these EMI programs. These particular schools were mainly located in Jakarta, the Indonesian capital city, on the island of Java. In the private education sector, schools that offered these programs were labelled National Plus schools.

It is important to note that both types of EMI at the international schools and SBI were apparently different. While international schools adopt a certain curriculum (the US, or Australian) (they introduced the Basic Principle in Indonesian as prescribed by the National Education Law), SBI, on the other hand, offered certain subjects (Mathematics, and Science) in two languages- English and Indonesian. Thus, the students used to have two separately different academics reports based on the medium language.

However, as mentioned in Chapter 1, a number of problems with this EMI program were encountered by the teachers and more generally by the schools practising English bilingual education. A review of the literature and documentation pertaining to this program indicates that supporting infrastructure and guidelines for EMI practice were of a limited nature. It also appeared that the stakeholders (both teachers and policy makers) had a limited understanding of EMI (Bax, 2010; Coleman, 2009; Coleman, 2011; Hadisantosa, 2010). As a consequence, after seven years the program in most schools was officially abandoned.

This experience provides a salutary lesson with regard to the implementation of EMI at Indonesian HE levels, particularly concerning the need for clear guidelines for the specific curriculum for EMI, which are currently unavailable. It should be noted that this lack of availability may have arisen as a result of the autonomous and flexible status granted to HE institutions by the government to develop their internal curriculum (The Law of National Education System of 2003, Article 24). In this way, the policy makers of the universities appear to lack sufficient information regarding this practice. However, whether or not this is actually the case requires further investigation and it is one purpose of the current study to explore what resources are available with respect to the implementation of this approach.

Clearly there is some ambiguity around international classes, bilingual classes and EMI more generally. This was highlighted in the language used by the Indonesian Minister of Research and Technology and Higher Education (Menteri Riset dan Tehnology dan Pendidikan Tinggi, or Menristekdikti) in 2015 when he described the program as the ‘bilingual curriculum’ (Nasir, 2015). Yet, when he visited Airlangga University he used another term namely describing it as a ‘dual language’ program (Nasir, 2015). Despite the lack of clarity in his language use, his support was unequivocal when he stated that HE institutions should accommodate the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Economic Community (AEC) (Masyarakat Ekonomi ASEAN, or MEA) through the adoption of a ‘bilingual curriculum’ (Nasir, 2015). Menristekdikti might potentially repeat similar problem at the school level if no further guiderlines are issued to follow up this intent. To date the establishing of international office (Kantor Urusan International, or KUI) in HE instituions appears to

be catering for this step. Currently there are 30 public and private universities, which have KUIs with support from the government (Read Kemristekdikti).

Although there seems to be some confusion surrounding terms such as bilingual classes and international classes, there are mechanisms in place in Indonesia to ensure that internationalisation occurs and that English language programs are a key part. This is because Indonesian HE has the National Accreditation Committee of Higher Education, (Badan Akreditasi Nasional Perguruan Tinggi, or BAN-PT) which is responsible for accrediting each university (BAN-PT, 2016). To achieve the requisite standard and gain accreditation each university must follow the IQF-based guidelines for HE institutions which are set by the Ministerial Regulation of 2014 Number 49 on Graduate Competency Standards, or SNPT for Indonesian HE institutions. The question remains as to how well these mechanisms translate into effective programs and teaching practices. Again this is a focus of the current study within the context of Pondasi University.

### **2.3 The role of English in education in Indonesia**

Although some scholars have warned that the hegemony of English has endangered the development of many vernacular languages (Phillipson, 1992), English is still being used as the lingua franca in many contexts (Graddol, 2006) including ASEAN. Given the prominent status of English (see Crystal, 1997; Jenkins et al., 2011), it plays a key role in the internationalisation process of HE institutions in Indonesia. Also, it is important to understand how English language courses are organised in Indonesian both at schools and in the university curriculum. In the 1994 revised curriculum, English was included as a subject in primary education, starting in the fourth grade (Kam, 2002). However, in the most current curriculum, English is no longer a compulsory subject in primary (public) schools. The introduction of English was believed to harm young learners' first language development (Afifah, 2012). However, it does remain so in secondary schools, where four hours a week are devoted to the teaching of English (Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, 2013).



According to the Law of Higher Education of 2012 (Number 12), there are two general categories of courses in universities. The first category includes courses pertaining to the core content of the program. For example, Electrical or Mechanical Engineering programs offer courses relevant to that discipline, and the universities are given autonomy to develop the curriculum for these subjects (the Law of Higher Education of 2012, Number 12, Article 35). The other courses are those which are non-core programs, but are still compulsory for all students. They include *Religion, Citizenship, and Indonesian Language*.

It is interesting to note that in the Law of Higher Education of 2012 no explicit mention is made about having English courses in the university curriculum. Yet the inclusion of English language instruction in the HE curriculum is supported by Article 37 of the same Law. As described earlier, because of globalisation and the need for English in the workplace, which is often used internationally as the lingua franca, the majority of universities in Indonesia do choose to include English language courses in their curriculum. Pondasi University, the setting for the current research, is one of the institutions that include English language learning in its curriculum. How this is done and other aspects relevant to the current research are described in the next section.

## **2.4 Pondasi University**

The research for the current study was undertaken at Pondasi University - a state polytechnic. This section provides a detailed description of this institution, how it is structured, who it caters for in terms of its student body, who teaches there and how the curriculum is organised. Educational delivery in general and pertaining to English instruction is also discussed.

### **2.4.1 The structure**

Pondasi University is a professional HE institution which focusses on the mastery of and the development of science and technology to promote industrialisation. As with all polytechnics in Indonesia, it has a competence based curriculum, emphasising the development in students' competences for handling technological products based on standard procedures, using a blend of theory and practice. The teaching of theory emphasises the linking of basic concepts with real-life cases through a method of practical problem solving. Meanwhile, the teaching focuses on the development of adeptness in integrating theory with real processes in producing the finished product (Pondasi University, 2015e).

The study program in the University has a teaching and learning system as follows. The duration of its programs is six semesters (three years) and integrates lesson delivery in classrooms, laboratories and workshops with field work practice in order to apply the knowledge given in the real world. This blend has approximately 60 percent practical work and 40 percent theoretical lessons.

There are eight departments in the University. Table 4 provides the description of the programs offered in each department.

Table 4: The departments at Pondasi University (Pondasi University, 2015e)

Department	Study Programs
1. Civil Engineering and Planning	1. The Diploma III of Civil Engineering 2. The Diploma IV of Housing and Settlement Engineering.
2. Mechanical Engineering	1. The Diploma III of Mechanical Engineering 2. The Diploma I of Heavy Equipment Operator*
3. Electronic Engineering	1. The Diploma III of Electrical Engineering 2. The Diploma III of Electronic Engineering 3. The Diploma III of Informatics Engineering
4. Business Administration	1. The Diploma III of Business Administration 2. The Diploma IV of Governmental Agencies Administration*
5. Accounting	1. The Diploma III of Accounting 2. The Diploma IV of Public Sector Accounting*
6. Agricultural Technology	The Technology of Plantation Product Processing.
7. Marine and Fisheries Science	1. The Diploma III of Technology of Fish Cultivation 2. The Diploma III of Fishing Technology 3. The Diploma III of Technology of Fish Processing
8. Architecture Engineering and Planning	Diploma III of Architecture Engineering.

\*These study programs were the latest run by Pondasi University

Again because of its vocational focus, student assessment is comprised of both theory and practice components. Table 5 outlines the general arrangement of assessment in most courses.

Table 5: Assessment of students' learning\*

Components of assessment	Percentage of assessment			Description
	I	II	III	
The average grade of theory	50%	40%	30%	The proportion of the grade value is suited to the number of units set for theory and practice/laboratory components within a course  The average grade is comprised of the provisions of the assessment of the theory and practice/laboratory components
The average grade of practical lesson	50%	60%	70%	

\*(Translated from Pedoman Akademik POLNEP 2012 - 2013)

As indicated in this table, there are three ways of allocating grades for the theory and practice components of the course which contribute to the students' final grades. The table also shows that, gradually, a greater proportion is given to the practical components.

The head of Pondasi University is the Director who is assisted by four people: the Associate Director (Pudir I) for academics matters, the Associate Director (Pudir II) in charge of administration, personnel and finance, the Associate Director (Pudir III) who is responsible for student affairs, and the Associate Director (Pudir IV) who oversees cooperation and industrial relations.

Currently Pondasi University has approximately 200 teaching staff consisting of lecturers and instructors who have received comprehensive training about education in a polytechnic from both domestic and overseas institutions (Pondasi University, 2015e). As this is a state HE institution, the majority of the teaching staff is classified as civil servants and are hired by the Indonesian government.

The students are usually recruited through a selection process based on their academic grades from high schools. Students who meet the entry standards and have expressed an interest in these courses are offered a place. This selection process also depends on the number of places available in that particular academic year. As this is a government University, the students' tuition fees are subsidised by the government so they do not have to pay the full amount.

#### **2.4.2 EMI and English courses**

As described earlier, Pondasi University is in the process of introducing EMI. Some pilot EMI programs have already commenced, beginning in 2010 with the School of Information and Technology (IT) in the Electronic Engineering and the Business Administration Departments. In addition to these departments, the Accounting Department began its EMI program in 2012 (Pondasi University, 2015c). Each of these departments opened one bilingual class. The lecturers who volunteered to do this were willing to practice EMI in their courses. Students who attained high level of English scores in their secondary school were selected and placed in these classes. The courses included in this practice were *Quality and Management System (QMS)*, *Accounting*, *Programming 1*, and *Programming 2*. In addition, the department of Business Administration currently requires the students to write their final project report in English and the teachers, who are willing to supervise this particular mode of final project writing (Academic English), are rewarded by the University.

Even though currently being practised voluntarily by several lecturers, there is no specific regulation provided by the Director of Pondasi University regarding how EMI should be done. In general, it appears that instruction to staff about EMI practice has occurred informally. Most importantly those involved in the implementation of EMI through bilingual classes have volunteered to do so. Their perceptions about this practice (e.g., problems, practical issues and benefits) are explored in the current study.

In addition to these classes, English courses are compulsory at Pondasi University. As such the University has an English Language Unit (Unit Pelaksana Teknis Bahasa, or UPT Bahasa). There are twelve English lecturers working in this unit and one or two are assigned to each Department. Each department has a different policy in terms

of the number of English courses taught and the semesters in which they are offered. This ranges from two to four a week during one to six semesters. The Business and Accounting departments have the largest number of English courses and semesters offering English courses (four for six semesters), followed by Electronic Engineering and Maritime and Fisheries departments (two for four semesters). The other departments offer a smaller number.

Relevant to the characteristics of a vocational university, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and content based instruction (CBI) approaches are adopted into English language teaching (ELT) at the University (Simbolon, 2015). With these approaches, lecturers incorporate the discipline content into their ELT. Each lecturer develops their own curriculum for the English course according to which department the course is offered.

## **2.5 Summary of the chapter**

Globalisation and the international use of English as a lingua franca is a reality. Because of this internationalisation of HE in Indonesia, it is essential, not only for universities to obtain international recognition, but also to enable their graduates to be able to compete globally, including at a linguistic level. In response to this the HE curriculum in Indonesia has been revised. In addition, structures (international classes) and activities (e.g., bilingual classes, research collaboration, and student exchange) have been put in place to continue the internationalisation of HE institutions in Indonesia. One key part of this is the development of high levels of English communicative competence in university graduates. Hence, the issue of English learning and teaching is a crucial issue in the current research context. English course classes appear to potentially build sufficient English competency to access English-based curriculum. The use of EMI practice by content lecturers may contribute to achieving this goal. However, arrangements and preparation for this implementation need to be carefully scrutinised. In particular, how EMI translates into the practice of those charged with teaching the language is currently unclear. The goal of this current research is to explore this, particularly from the perspective of those directly involved.

## **CHAPTER 3: EMI PRACTICE AND LECTURERS' PERSPECTIVES: A REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

### **3.0 Introduction**

This chapter provides an overview of the key theories and concepts relevant to this study. It commences with a review of the pedagogy of bilingual education. This includes a discussion of some models of additional language learning and teaching including content and language integrated learning (CLIL) practice (section 3.1). It is from these CLIL roots that the practice of EMI should be viewed. The following section (section 3.2) outlines the global context in which EMI is used and reviews studies examining the rationale for and the outcomes of the implementation of this approach. The chapter moves on to discuss research about the ways teachers view EMI practices including the terms, practices, benefits of EMI, and relevant support needed for the implementation of this practice (section 3.3). Section 3.4 provides an account of the conceptual framework which informs this investigation of lecturers' perspectives on EMI. The last section (3.5) of this chapter summarises the chapter and presents the research questions.

### **3.1 The foundational pedagogy of EMI**

This section provides a description of the theoretical foundation of EMI practice. Derived from the theory of bilingual education, CLIL practice is the framework underpinning EMI.

#### **3.1.1 Bilingual Education**

Bilingual education is teaching and learning undertaken in more than one language (Baker, 2011). EMI is one example of this. However, bilingual education can be associated with different kinds of teaching practices (Garcia, 2009). For example, with EMI some curriculum content is learnt through a student's additional language and some through their first or home language. The basis for selection can be contextual,

but also theoretical. Table 6 below summarises a number of theoretical frameworks and practices in bilingual education.

Table 6: Bilingual education theoretical frameworks and practices

	Subtractive Bilingual Education	Additive Bilingual Education	Recursive Bilingual Education	Dynamic Bilingual Education
Language ideology	Monoglossic	Monoglossic	Heteroglossic	Heteroglossic
Linguistic goal	Monolingualism	Bilingualism	Bilingualism	Bilingualism
Bilingual teaching models	Convergent	Immersion	Immersion	Multiple
Types	Transitional	Immersion	Immersion revitalisation	CLIL

(Adapted from Garcia, 2009; pp. 123 and 310)

As Table 6 indicates, the theoretical framework for bilingual education may be “subtractive”, “additive”, “recursive” or “dynamic” (Baker, 2011; Garcia, 2009). The “subtractive” teaching approach aims to shift the medium of instruction from the learner’s first language (L1), the minority language, to the majority language (L2) due to the linguistic goal of monolingualism. “Convergent bilingual teaching” is an approach used within this framework. This is where two languages are used concurrently, but the goal is to support academic proficiency in the dominant language. The use of the home language is to support instruction in the dominant language. Such a method is used in the transitional bilingual education program in the USA with migrants (Baker, 2011). This particular program, reflects a “subtractive” teaching approach and deploys convergent bilingual teaching in a way that bilingualism is permitted only as a temporary measure and until such time that the learner is fluent in the majority (target) language (Garcia, 2009).

In contrast, the goal of the other three types of bilingual education is attaining bilingualism, that is, the ability to use more than one language (Baker, 2011). The “additive” teaching approach has the goal of preserving the student’s first language



and culture while adopting an additional language (Garcia, 2009). This is often achieved through “immersion bilingual teaching” whereby teaching occurs monolingually in two languages in different settings, as the goal is to maintain both languages. The rationale is that the two languages are best developed in isolation. The French immersion program in Canada, where the majority language is English, uses this approach by introducing learning content in French (Dalton-Puffer, 2007). Both subtractive and additive approaches are derived from the concept of monoglossic language ideology, the accepted linguistic practice of monolingualism (Garcia, 2009).

The next two approaches adopt a heteroglossic language ideology meaning that these approaches are practised to promote multilingualism in context. For example, “multiple bilingual teaching” is a practice using two or more languages in a blending of the two previous practices (concurrently and separately). Unlike the convergent practice, there is a clear language policy of multiple language teaching practice. The promotion of multilingual awareness and linguistic tolerance is suggested by the use of “codeswitching”, more recently described as “translanguaging” or “a systematic shift from one language to another for specific reasons” (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010, p. 16). It should be noted that the concept of translanguaging goes beyond codeswitching. Garcia and Leiva (2013) asserted that codeswitching is the practice of mixing or switching two static languages; translanguaging creates the open discursive exchanges among people in ways that recognise their values of languaging. Thus translanguaging includes codewitching (Garcia & Sylvan, 2011).

Alternatively, the receptive skills of language may be practised in the students’ L1 and the productive skills are practised in their L2 (Baker, 2011) in order to maintain plurilingual values (Garcia, 2009) (note: plurilingual education will be described in the following section - 3.1.2). For instance, the “recursive” teaching approach aims to revitalise a particular language through immersion. One example of this has recently been undertaken with the Banten language - which is used for communication by many in the community of the Banten province of Western Java, Indonesia. Previously it was not used in schools, however, the local language was written into the local curriculum content (Arif, 2013) in 2013 for the students who are emergent bilinguals - speaking Bantenese and Indonesian (Garcia, 2009). By doing so, the students have been given the opportunity to practice their mother tongue. Such immersion

revitalisation programs aim not only to support the L1, but also to reinforce the L2 (Johnson & Swain, 1997).

In contrast to this approach, “dynamic” teaching involves the practice of using language with a communicative purpose (Garcia, 2009) and it also promotes multicultural awareness. In the Indonesian context, a country consisting of hundreds of ethnic languages (Kirkpatrick, 2012), students coming from a variety of linguistic backgrounds might practise this approach to enhance “functional interrelationships” (Garcia, 2009, p. 119) in schools. In fact, by requiring the use of Bahasa Indonesia (henceforth referred to simply as Indonesian) in all educational settings, the Indonesian government has provided the basis for multilingualism. The inclusion of local languages in the local school curriculum is advised by government (The Regulation of Education and Culture Minister of 2014 Number 79). This is because the Indonesian language itself is the lingua franca among hundreds of other local languages, and hence has become an additional language. Thus, in reality the use of Indonesian has become the language for instruction and in this way a CLIL approach is used.

CLIL is defined as “an educational approach in which various language-supportive methodologies are used which lead to a dual-focused form of instruction where attention is given to both the language and the content” (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 3) (This particular term will also be discussed in further detailed in section 3.1.2). It has been most commonly used in the European context (Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Doiz et al., 2013). Due to the increasing popularity of English as an international communication tool (Graddol, 2006) English is being used as the language of instruction in universities in non-speaking countries. This approach is also known in many educational contexts globally as EMI. Given its relevance to the current study, CLIL is described in detail in the next section.

### **3.1.2 CLIL: the theoretical framework of EMI practice**

This section presents a description of CLIL as the foundational theory of EMI practice. EMI exists as a subset of CLIL pedagogy, and some particular models, approaches and practical applications (in terms of content, language, and the integration of both) of this practice in classrooms are also described.

### ***Models***

Although there are a high number of global demands for the English language in non-Anglophone contexts, CLIL practice is not a synonym for English language learning and teaching (Coyle et al., 2010). Similarly, it is not synonymous with content learning and teaching, which pays less attention to the language of instruction than to the content (Coyle et al., 2010). However, as indicated previously EMI is a subset of CLIL and it is a common manifestation of this approach in contexts where the development of English language proficiency is a key goal of education.

Given the focus of the current study it is important to understand the key underpinnings of CLIL. However, to do this it must first be acknowledged that CLIL does not exist as a monolith of language instruction. Instead there exist various interpretations of CLIL. Lasagabaster (2008) records several terms which have been used interchangeably with CLIL including Content Based Instruction (CBI) and theme-based language teaching. Stoller (2008), on the other hand, considers that CBI is the umbrella term for the combination of content and language learning, whereas, Mehisto, Marsh, and Frigols, (2008) consider CLIL to be the umbrella term for similar practice of integrating content and language learning.

Ball (2009) suggests that these understandings can be placed on a continuum. At either end he distinguishes two default types of CLIL - “strong/hard CLIL” and “weak/soft CLIL”. Figure 1 shows the CLIL continuum.

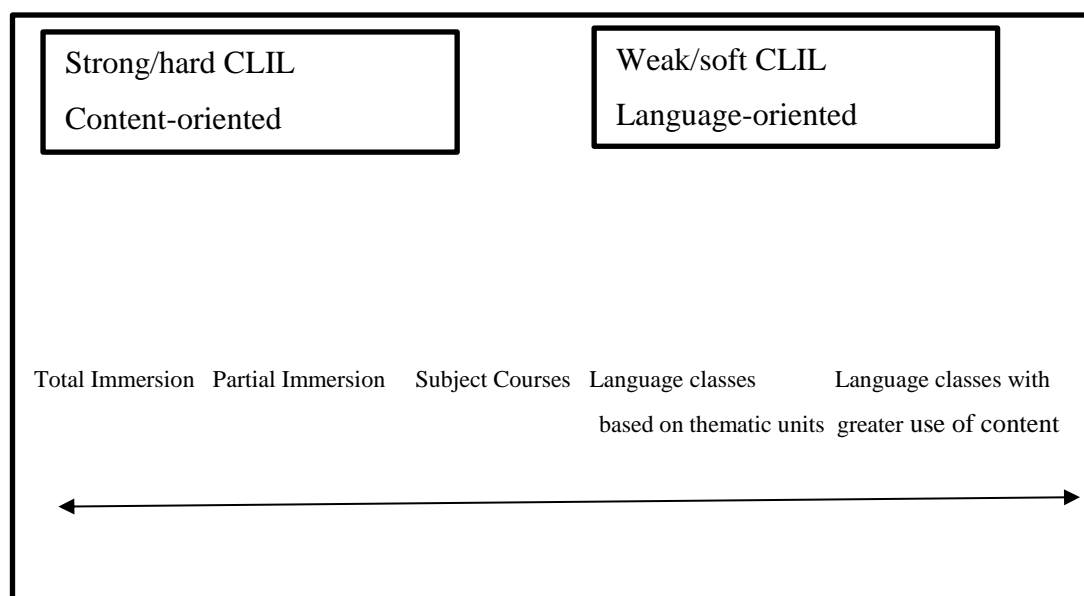


Figure 1: Continuum of CLIL models (Ball, 2009)

As can be seen in Figure 1 “Total Immersion” and “Partial Immersion” are located on one end of the continuum as a type of “strong/hard CLIL”. These two types differ in the emphasis they place on target/CLIL language use in the classroom. Whilst the first type supports full L2 instruction, the second uses L2 at the around fifty percent of class time. The French immersion program (Dalton-Puffer, 2007) and two-way immersion in the United States (Garcia & Baker, 2007) are examples of these models. In “Subject Courses” one or two subjects are learnt in the L2. This appears to resemble what Coyle (2005) labels as a “subjects/topic syllabus” which means teaching a subject (e.g., Geography) in L2 to explore the subject from a different perspective. On the other end of the continuum, as shown in Figure 1, the type of “weak/soft CLIL” includes language classes with theme-based courses and frequent use of content. CBI is one of the examples of this language-based approach, which is practised by English course teachers at Pondasi University in which the current study was conducted.

Thus, Ball (2009) considers all educational practices where there is integration of content and language learning to be CLIL. His continuum appears to be very close to what Met (1998) names “content driven” and “language driven” ends of the continuum. Massler, Stotz, and Queisser’s (2014) suggestion appears to simplify Met (1998) and Ball’s (2009) interpretations. For them one end of the continuum can be labelled as ‘L2 medium subjects’ and the other as ‘L2 classes’. From a different

perspective, Dale and Tanner (2012) provide a similar classification for CLIL practice by laying it in the teachers' hands. According to them, two main types of CLIL are CLIL subject courses and CLIL language courses. The first category of CLIL is presented by the content teachers, but this is different from Immersion practice because the focus of immersion is language skills (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010). The second is CLIL, which is delivered by the language specialists, and which is different from content-based language teaching (CBLT). Based on this interpretation, CBI is one example of Dale and Tanner's (2012) latter category and EMI is the first type.

Therefore, it can be seen that EMI and CBI exist as different types of CLIL practice, which in turn reflect the different interpretations of this approach. According to Morgado and Coelho (2013) the overlap between EMI and CLIL include the need to focus on specific vocabulary and terminology, the creation of authentic learning settings, and codeswitching between L2 and L1. However, they do make a distinction in that methodologically CLIL supports the learning process of learners' language production, and more time is needed for further explanation and illustration so that learning can be comprehended in L2. In contrast, in EMI, content teachers devise strategies (simplifying, translating) to help students understand the content (Morgado & Coelho, 2013). In a similar way, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) highlight the importance of the contribution of the teachers and contexts in which these practices occur. They suggest that unlike in Immersion programs, in CLIL the L2 is not commonly spoken in context. This particular description of CLIL appears to be closely related to the EMI practice in the context of the current study.

To summarise, EMI practice in Indonesian education, especially in the target university is has considerable advantages in both continuum of CLIL practice – content driven and language driven (Ball, 2009; Dale & Tanner, 2012; Met, 1998; Massler et al, 2014). On the one hand, English specialists adopting CBI means they teach English classes driven by certain disciplines. On the other hand, EMI courses are content driven courses, where English is used by discipline lecturers to teach their subject matter. Thus, in this study, although the term used is "EMI", it is a context specific label and manifestation of the practice of CLIL teaching.

At the university level three potential models for EMI practice have been more specifically proposed by Coyle et al (2010). Firstly there is “plurilingual education”, where more than one language is used during different discipline programs. The students are expected to achieve skills in both content and in more than one language. This model requires the students to have a certain level of the vehicular language (e.g., English) skills to succeed in the EMI program. As such, students are expected to be able to switch between languages in the immediate situation. The second model is “adjunct CLIL”, where language teaching occurs parallel to content teaching. In this sense, additional language teaching takes the form of the content-based instruction (CBI) approach (Crandall & Tucker, 1990; Stryker & Leaver, 1997; Stoller, 2008) where the materials of the content course are used as meaningful instructional input (as per Krashen, 1989) for additional language learners. The last model is “language-embedded content courses”. This particular teaching is conducted by both content and language specialists where content programs are designed from the outset with the objective of language development.

Within these different models of CLIL (and EMI), there are different approaches used in classrooms. These are described in the following section.

### ***Approaches***

Two approaches for EMI practice include “extensive instruction through the vehicular language” and “partial instruction through the vehicular language” (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 15). The first approach refers to a full use of English “to introduce, summarise and revise topics, with very limited switches into the first language to explain specific language aspects of the subject or vocabulary items” (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 15). This approach can be employed by one content teacher, through cooperation with a language specialist, or the language can be taught parallel to content learning in separate language classes.

The other approach, “partial instruction”, is often undertaken as bilingual amalgamated instruction, in particular using the practice of “codeswitching” (or as noted previously more recently encompassed within the concept of “translanguaging”), which can be described as “multiple discursive practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds.” (Garcia, 2009, p.

45). For instance, one language might be used for briefing and summarising the main points, and the other one for the remaining needs of the lesson including asking questions and giving feedback (Coyle et al., 2010).

### ***Content learning***

To be claimed as EMI practice, it is not simply enough to use English with traditional content teaching. First, EMI practice commences by determining the content for EMI learning. Content can range “from a statutory national curriculum to project-based topical issues” depending on the institutional context (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 28). After the content is determined, it is necessary to consider the strategies for learning the content. Coyle et al (2010, p. 28) advocate a strategy they claim to be important, namely building “synergies” for effective learning to take place. The content, common learning theory adopted in a certain context, and individuals’ learning styles need to have a synergy. This effort demands a vigorous analysis of what can be achieved through integrated learning and what is meant by effective teaching method strategies in various contexts (Coyle et al., 2010). This has also been emphasised by Wilkinson (2004), who claims that a real challenge in EMI practice is to conduct well-designed studies, which focus on investigating best ways of organising, implementing and assessing the teaching practice. Thus, while some principles for content learning seem to have been established, there appears to be insufficient research to suggest effective teaching strategies of content learning in various contexts.

Apart from the issues of the content learning and teaching strategies, the most crucial element of EMI practice is considered to be “cognitive engagement” (Coyle et al. (2010, p. 29). The students are expected to not only be able to define the knowledge and skills, but they also need to be able to apply them. Cognitive engagement very much links with life skills including “dealing with the unexpected, observational skills, and constructing knowledge which is built on their interactions with the world” (Lier in Coyle et al., 2010, p. 29). This ranges from lower to higher-order thinking. Lower-order thinking includes remembering, understanding and applying, and higher-order thinking involves analysing, evaluating, and creating (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001, pp. 67-68).

This particular element of content learning can be described as a two-sided coin - on the one side it has the potential to bring about an improvement in the content of teaching methods because tasks and assessment can be further developed. Hence, students can be trained to practise their life skills through this process of cognitive engagement. However, this might be challenging for teachers to use in context, particularly the last two types of higher-order thinking. By excluding the knowledge of thinking about thinking, that is, metacognition (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001) in assessing students' content learning they might be unable to construct their ongoing learning. On the other side of the coin, engaging students' cognition might hinder the success of EMI practice when students' L2 proficiency is limited and the teachers' English proficiency and EMI teaching method are insufficient. Therefore, EMI practice seems to be highly challenging for content specialists particularly if they are not being provided with sufficient support.

### ***Language learning***

'Language learning' within the EMI framework should be understood as including not just language learning, but also language using. This concept is underpinned by the theory of language acquisition and language pedagogy. Within the teaching and learning context, learners are trained to use the language as it has a communicative purpose. That is the language to be used in authentic settings (Savignon, in Coyle et al., 2010). Some principles for this practice include the role of language as a communication tool, the goal for both language learning and language use, and multiple methods for language learning (Savignon, in Coyle et al., 2010). These aspects are relevant to the concept of the integration of language and content within EMI. However, this must go beyond using EMI practice only with a form or meaning focus. As Swain (1988) advocates there also needs to be systematic monitoring and planning for integrating content, language and thinking skills.

An alternative approach for using particular language (L2) to learn the content is suggested by Coyle et al. (2010) as illustrated in Figure 2.



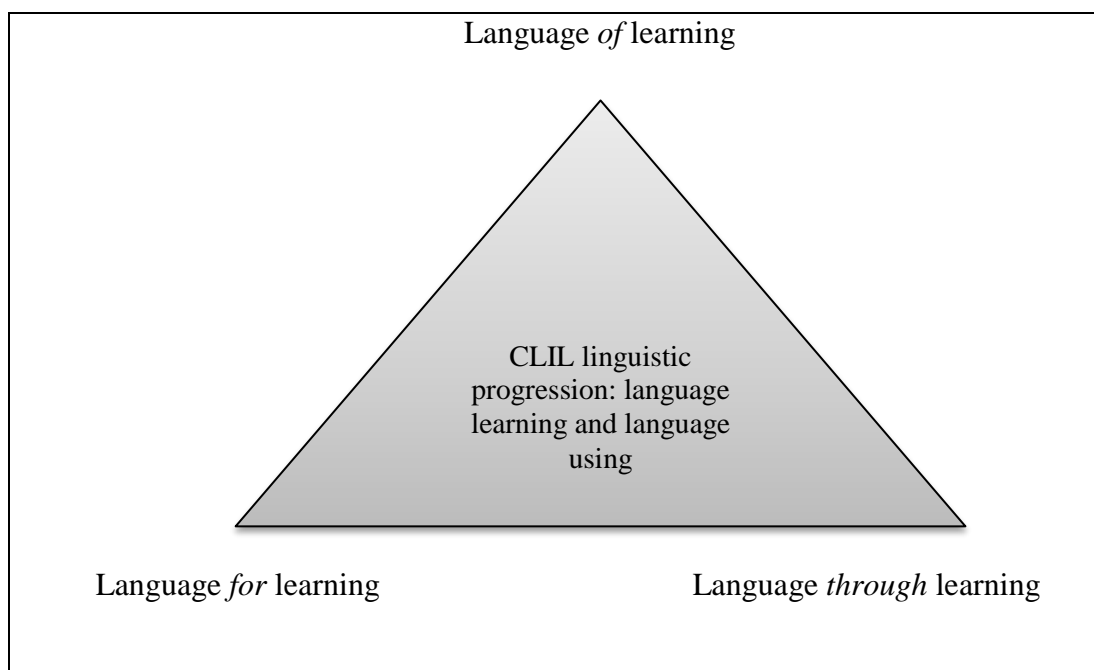


Figure 2: The language triptych (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 36)

*Language of learning* is the language needed by the students to access the basic concepts and skills of the course. This concerns the key terminology that the students need to acquire in the additional language. Lin (2015, p. 81) supports this idea and states that using textbooks in EMI practice is important in order to provide basic L2 proficiency so students can have access to L2 academic content and literacy. This provides the students with the authentic learning experience. Coyle et al. (2010) further suggest that for the content lecturers this requires them to have sufficient information about the linguistic demands of the subject in order for their students to be supported to develop literacy and oracy skills in the target language. How this might be achieved in the current context, is one focus of the current study.

*Language for learning* is the kind of language the learners need in performing tasks during their learning in the classroom. Coyle et al. (2010) suggest developing a list of speech acts relating to the content including describing, debating and asking questions. Alternatively de Graaff, Koopman, Anikia, and Westhoff (2007, in de Zarobe & Jiménez Catalán, 2009) suggest that teachers facilitate exposure to input and provide opportunities for output production through appropriate learning activities and

materials. Whether or not this is done in the current context is also investigated in the present study.

Language *through* learning is about emerging language needs. This means that language cannot be always predicted before performing the EMI practice. As the language needs to be grasped, recycled and developed by the EMI teacher, Coyle et al. (2010) suggest an active connection between language and thinking. This might happen during interaction, or as part of a dialogic activity in EMI practice. Such dialogic learning (Wells, 1999) enables teacher-student, and student-student interactions to take place. For example, when learners' needs are identified, for example, they are required to prepare a report about a project in science and the EMI teacher needs to support the learners to do so by providing access to the appropriate uses of past form in the EMI learning environment. Presenting aspects of language within EMI, especially engaging students in this dialogic learning in a foreign language, appears to suggest that there should be at a certain level of L2 proficiency needed by the students before commencing their EMI course. In addition, the content teachers need support in order to implement EMI practice. These particular concerns are to be examined in the current study.

In terms of language learning within EMI, one of goals of this practice according to the *CLIL Compendium* (Marsh, Marshland, & Stenberg, 2001) is to deepen awareness of both the first and the target language. This aim reflects the position that within the EMI framework L1 is also being supported. As developing bilingual practice is clearly seen to be important, L1 use in EMI practice should be expected. With this scenario, building teacher-student and student-student interaction leads to learning engagement. Again, content teachers may encounter another challenging role switching between two languages in the EMI classroom in order to engage students' learning – this particular issue is also explored in this study.

The goal of strengthening students' L1 may have some benefits. For the students at the university level, learners' L1 skills, especially academic language, can be continuously improved through EMI practice. While continuing to develop their L1 skills, these particular skills can then be used to enhance their L2. For example, within a content lesson they could compare equivalent L1 and L2 expressions. By focusing their

attention metalinguistically, their L2 learning can be scaffolded and learners might be better able to achieve the learning objectives of their courses (Swain, 1988).

### ***Integration of content and language learning***

The practice of integrating content into language pedagogy, according to Coyle et al., (2010) should be done holistically by adopting the 4Cs (*content, communication, cognition, and culture*). *Content* (subject matter) is argued to be not solely about acquiring knowledge and skills, it is also about the learners creating their own knowledge and understanding and developing skills. *Communication* entails the capacity to interact in an EMI setting. As described earlier, *Cognition* is about the development of thinking processes, which should be reflected in every learning activity. The aspect of *Culture* involves intercultural awareness, which is paramount in CLIL practice (Coyle, et al., 2010, pp 42-43).

Combining all these aspects into instruction can be highly challenging and requires strong collaboration between content and language specialists (Coyle et al., 2014). Whether or not this occurs, and if so, how this is done in the current context, is one of the key issues examined in the current study.

## **3.2 EMI practices in global contexts**

This section provides a description of current EMI practices in the global context. This includes an outline of the different terminology used. Also provided are accounts of research about EMI implementation and the outcomes of this in various contexts.

### **3.2.1 EMI practice in Europe**

Within Europe the terms EMI, and also ‘English-taught Programs’ (henceforth ETPs) are used, particularly in tertiary education institutions (Wachter & Maiworm, 2008; Costa & Coleman, 2012). The main reasons European universities offer programs in English are to attract international students and to prepare domestic students for the global labour market (Doiz et al., 2013).

As outlined in Chapter 1, European universities base their EMI practices on the Bologna Process initiated in 1999. This process was designed to harmonise tertiary education across Europe, to provide mutual recognition of qualifications, to enhance mobility among students and graduates and to enable European HE institutions to attract international students more easily (Costa & Coleman, 2012, p.4). Several drivers for such ‘Englishisation’ (Coleman, 2006) in European HE institutions have been recorded, including CLIL/EMI, internationalisation, student exchanges, teaching and research materials, staff mobility, graduate employability, and the market in international students (Doiz et al., 2013).

In the European context the majority of research studies have focused on describing EMI practice, its challenges and the impact of the process on the internationalisation of HE institutions. For example, a study by Hernandez-Nanclares and Jimenez-Munoz (2015) was conducted in one university in Spain which gradually introduced bilingual courses. The introduction of EMI in this context led to considerable challenges for the institution, practitioners and students. The study particularly focused on measuring students’ learning outcomes in language and content skills as a consequence of being enrolled in EMI classes. The findings showed EMI students’ linguistic progression and general outcomes to be positive. On average, EMI students failed less than those students learning in their L1 and they also obtained higher grades. However, the results were limited to the first year of their program of studies. Further work is still needed to assess their progression throughout their entire degree (Hernandez-Nanclares & Jimenez-Munoz, 2015).

Another example, in a similar context, was described in a study by Tatzl (2011). Once again, the introduction of English-language instruction by this tertiary education provider in this context was to facilitate the internationalisation process, as described by Maiworm and Wächter (2002, p. 42), are

the strengthening of internationalisation in general, introduction of a coherent policy for internationalisation, improvement of international visibility of the institution, improvement of the quality of teaching/ learning, and development of foreign language competencies of students.

The purpose of the research was to identify stakeholders' (the lecturers' and students') attitudes, experiences and challenges regarding EMI practice in one HE institution in Austria. This was done by administering a questionnaire and conducting follow-up interviews. They found both the lecturers and students shared a positive attitude towards their EMI program. Despite a favourable attitude towards this practice, they also identified lecturers' demands for greater professional development to effectively support students' English language learning (Tatzl, 2011).

European research about EMI ranges from a focus on the stakeholders' perspectives (institutional leaders, teachers, and students) on EMI to the practical ways of implementing EMI. Again this has been done using such methods as questionnaires, interviews and observations (Wachter & Maiworm, 2008; Costa & Coleman, 2012). General findings indicate a link between the implementation of EMI and the process of the internationalisation of HE institutions in Europe.

### **3.2.2 EMI practice in Asia**

In Asia, in response to global competition in the HE sector, some Asian institutions have also begun to offer EMI programs. There have also been other reasons for the introduction of EMI. For example, many universities and colleges in China were instructed to use English as a teaching medium as the country began to prepare to participate in the World Trade Organization (WTO) (Cui & Xiaoqiong, 2007). In fact, the Education Ministry in China in 2001 (Cui & Xiaoqiong, 2007) decreed that between five to ten percent of HE institutions' total courses must be taught bilingually by 2004.

Other triggers for implementing the EMI programs in Asia are similar to those in the European context – including attracting international students. Malaysia was one of the earliest countries to adopt the practice of EMI (Gill, 2004) with some 100 private colleges and private universities and colleges engaging in such programs and doing so in partnership programs with universities from Australia, the United Kingdom, the United States, and other English-speaking countries. This program initially was intended to meet the local students' need for an international degree that was affordable. Malaysian HE institutions were able to host these programs by

collaborating with international HE institutions so the students pursued their study in Malaysia, but were taught by staff from an overseas university.

In addition to attracting international students, EMI has been introduced because of the belief that English is the means for global communication (Graddol, 2006; Gill & Kirkpatrick, 2013). In Taiwan, for example, Yang (2015) documented an English degree-based program (he labelled it CLIL) in one university. He described the goal of this program as being to increase learners' future employability and competitiveness in an internationalised society and to attract international students to study in Taiwanese universities (Yang, 2015).

Joe and Lee's (2013) study in the Korean context provides a different perspective on EMI practice in Asia. They focused on the impact of this practice on students' learning. They did this by giving students pre- and post-tests covering similar content and a questionnaire survey upon the completion one semester in their medical course. They found that even with higher English proficiency, the medical students in their study still needed a lesson summary in their L1 in the EMI classroom. This could be interpreted as a reflection of the lecturer's limitations in presenting the lessons in English, and also that the standard of English proficiency required of the students might not have been sufficient for the EMI learning environment.

Another similar study of EMI was undertaken in Bangladesh by Hossain, Shamim, Shahana, Rabib, and Rahman (2011). They examined the challenges encountered by medical students' in EMI courses in three universities. Using an instrument of writing assessment, they found that reading and understanding English textbooks was the most challenging part of the EMI practice occurring in these classrooms.

EMI practice is still relatively new in many contexts in Asia. To date research about EMI has mostly focused on students' concerns. There is a dearth of research focusing on the teachers' perspectives in this region. This is also reflected in the context of the current study as described in the following section.

### **3.2.3 EMI practice in Indonesia**

For a variety of reasons, including those that can be described as pragmatic, Indonesia is loosening its control over the Indonesian language as a medium of instruction in favour of English. As in other Asian contexts, this is being done, at least in part, to attract international students. Both private and several state HE institutions offer international classes with EMI for this particular purpose (also see p. 15 Chapter 2). This is supported by the findings of one of the few studies about EMI in Indonesia. The study was conducted by Floris (2014) at a private university in Java. She found the enactment of a policy of EMI, commencing in 2011 was in response to globalisation (Note: This study is described in further detail in Section 3.3.2).

Thus, it can be seen that English as the lingua franca of many contexts worldwide has triggered HE institutions to adopt English as the medium of instruction. The adoption of EMI practice is considered to enhance students' English language skills. Therefore, the introduction of EMI practice is seen to be both "proactive" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 7) and strategic.

In order for this practice to succeed, however, clear guidelines and resources for implementation are needed. As mentioned earlier in Introduction Chapter, the failure of the introduction of EMI at the Indonesian schools was caused by the unavailability of clear guidelines from the government. Insufficient clear policy had caused confusion among the stakeholders (schools and teachers).

Unlike Indonesia, in several other contexts (Europe and some other Asian countries) supporting guidance was provided. In Europe students are required to attain a B1 level (similar to 4 to 4.5 IELTS bands and 460 – 540 Paper-based Test (PBT) TOEFL scores, Cambridge Institute, 2016) of competence in the second language (Council of Europe, 2001) after their study program. In China, where the introduction of EMI was based on a governmental directive, teachers in universities were provided with training about bilingual instruction. In Indonesia, however, especially at Pondasi University the context for the current study, such support has not been given. There are no specific guidelines in relation to achieving a certain level of English proficiency, even though

TOEFL and IELTS are regularly used to measure English proficiency (Universitas Indonesia, 2016b; Australian Awards, 2015; AMINEF, 2016).

Currently at the macro level (government in particular) in Indonesia, EMI implementation at the HE level is expected. How this translates at the micro level within particular HE contexts is unclear (Hamid, Nguyen & Baldauf, 2013), especially given the failure that occurred when introducing EMI at the school level. It is particularly important to understand the perception of key stakeholders towards EMI practice. Findings from such research can inform policy makers and administration about what is necessary in terms of infrastructure needed to support this particular practice. Key stakeholders include both teachers and students and there is a body of research that has examined these perceptions, particular teachers' feelings and beliefs about EMI. The next section outlines this research.

### **3.3 EMI practice**

This section highlights university teachers' perspectives concerning key issues related to EMI practice. The main issues include terms, practical matters in the classroom, challenges and benefits of EMI, and support for EMI implementation.

#### **3.3.1 Terminology related to EMI practice**

There have been only a few studies examining the issue surrounding the terminology used in relation to EMI practice. The reason could be a common acceptance that each term being used is relevant to a particular context. Aguilar's study (2015) focused on seeking the lecturers' understanding about and preferences for the terms CLIL and EMI in a university in Spain. She did this by way of quantitative surveys and interviews. She found that the lecturers viewed EMI as less demanding than CLIL; hence they preferred to use the term EMI rather than CLIL. They also thought that in comparison to CLIL it was not necessary in EMI to provide language support to students. Further, they suggested that CLIL was more suitable for students with less English proficiency. This does seem to suggest that the lecturers' lack understanding and methodological skills related to this practice. This was a general trend as Aguilar



(2015) found no significant correlations between lecturers' responses and their backgrounds (position, EMI teaching experience, and specific training they received).

Another study undertaken in a similar context focused on the status of both CLIL and ESP courses in several departments in a Spanish university (Arno-Marcia & Mancho-Bares, 2015). The study, which used documents, classroom observation, and focus group interviews to collect data, revealed that some lecturers considered CLIL, rather than ESP to be a more dynamic approach to learning English for the students. Unlike the previous study, this study indicated that some lecturers held positive attitudes towards collaboration between content and ESP specialists (Arno-Marcia & Mancho-Bares, 2015). In addition, it does seem that the use of terminology such as EMI is influenced by the policy in each institution.

### **3.3.2 EMI classroom Practices**

A number of studies provide evidence of a variety of approaches used when practising EMI in the classroom. Table 7 summarises examples of a number of studies that have focussed on lecturers' perspectives and implementation of EMI.

Table 7: Studies focusing on the lecturers' views on practical matters in the EMI classroom

Authors	Research focus	Context (Country)	Data Collection	Findings
Floris (2014)	Lecturers experience and challenges when practicing EMI	13 lecturers (Indonesia)	In-depth interviews Classroom observations	Use of L1 to explain the key concepts of the lesson
Lasagabaster (2013)	L1 use in CLIL classes	35 (Colombia)	Interviews	Some functions of L1 use
Jensen and Thøgersen (2011)	Language use in EMI classroom	1131 lecturers (Denmark)	Surveys	The needs and concerns for L1 preservation in the academic environment
Tavares (2015)	Languages used in EMI classroom	One teacher (Hong Kong)	Classroom observation Semi-structured interview	L1 used in EMI teaching
Aguilar and Rodriguez (2012)	CLIL teaching experience and training	17 lecturers (Spain)	Interviews	Separation between content and language learning
Werther, Denver, Jensen, and Mees (2014)	Lecturers experience and challenges when practicing EMI	1794 lecturers for survey and five were invited for interviews (Denmark)	Survey Semi-structured Interviews	Shortcomings in quality of teaching
Basibek, Dolmaci, Cengiz, Bur, Dilek and Kara (2014)	Learning materials and challenges when practising EMI	63 lecturers in a university (Turkey)	Questionnaire	Lack of access to EMI learning materials (textbooks, references) Challenges in organising lessons and preparing EMI classroom materials
Perez Canado (2014)	Learning materials for EMI	706 teachers (schools and universities in Europe)	Survey	Training needs to use IT-based learning materials
Vinke, Snippe, and Jochems (1998)	Challenges in EMI practice	131 lecturers from several universities in the Netherlands	Survey	Limited skills to code switch between the languages

As Table 7 shows, the focus of the various research studies ranges from language use, assessment, and learning materials through to the challenges the lecturers encountered when practising EMI. The first three studies focus on how L1 is used in EMI classrooms. It is important to note that the lecturers in those studies had different rationales for using L1. In Floris' study (2014), the 13 lecturers, all of whom had attained Masters' degrees from universities overseas, taught their courses in English and only used Indonesian to explain major concepts. The main reason cited was their concern about their students' limited English proficiency. Lasagabaster's (2013) study examined in further detail the teachers' perceptions of the ways L1 use should be practised. In addition to serving the function of explanation, some teachers used it for some functional purposes such as managing classroom learning including singling out students' distracting behaviour, providing feedback for students' learning, and giving translations about vocabulary items. The majority of lecturers in Jensen and Thøgersen's (2011) study, undertaken in Denmark, did show positive attitudes towards the use of English in EMI classrooms, but were concerned with L1 preservation in the academic environment, and students' limited additional language learning. Therefore, they preferred the dissemination of the knowledge to the public to be in L1.

However, this was not done consistently as it was found that there was a relationship between the teachers' backgrounds (i.e., age and EMI teaching experience) and their attitudes towards the increased use of English in EMI classroom. As a general pattern, the difference in the perceptions of the lecturers appears to contribute to differences in their EMI practices in their classrooms.

Codeswitching was the focus in a study by Tavares (2015). She examined a bilingual teacher's linguistic strategies in a mathematics L2-medium classroom in Hong Kong. She found that the teacher allowed the students to use L1, particularly when answering questions. The teacher also allowed her students to use a notebook consisting of a repertoire of key words with L1 translations (Tavares, 2015). A similar strategy was also used by the teachers in Lasagabaster's (2013) study. Together these strategies appear to be used to cater for students' limited English skills (Floris, 2014) and as a way to maintain the L1 academic atmosphere (Jensen & Thøgersen, 2011).

In the study conducted by Aguilar and Rodriguez (2012), lecturers' views on EMI practices, including how they believed they should evaluate students' learning, were examined. It was found that the lecturers had no specific focus for assessing students' English language learning in their exams. It was hypothesised this was because of their limited English skills. They found there was a divide between content and language learning in that the teachers gave priority to assessing content learning. Furthermore, their study found that the vast majority of the lecturers showed a clear reluctance to undertake methodological training. They explicitly refused to be trained in CLIL methodology because of their perception of there being limited incentives to do so (Aguilar & Rodriguez, 2012).

The focus of the above three studies (Aguilar & Rodriguez, 2012; Jensen & Thøgersen, 2013; Lasagabaster, 2013) was the lecturers' perspectives on the teaching practices used in EMI classrooms. In contrast Basibek et al.'s (2014) study focused on the importance of English textbooks used in this context, and also on the challenges for lecturers in organising lessons and preparing the EMI classroom materials. Similarly, Wegner, 2012 examined teaching resources and reported that teachers in his study suggested there were very few EMI/CLIL-specific commercial teaching materials available.

Teachers in Basibek et al.'s (2014) study also acknowledged some challenges they encountered within EMI practice. They stated that they could better express themselves in their L1 than in their L2, and related to this they felt challenged about how and when to switch between the languages. This is similar to the findings in Vinke et al.'s (1998) study. However, in Werther et al.'s (2014) study they found that the lecturers used English more often in their teaching materials, especially when they were focused on teaching technical terms. Even so, like the lecturers in Basibek et al. (2014) and Vinke et al.'s (1998) studies, they were also concerned about the quality of their teaching. Perez Canado's study (2014) also focused on EMI learning materials issues and particularly on the use of information technology (IT)-based resources. He found that three ICT resources, Web 2.0 tools, web-quests, and computer-mediated communication, were considered to be helpful when implementing EMI. Once more, however, the need for training was also articulated by the teachers.

### **3.3.3 The benefits of EMI practice**

A number of benefits for EMI have been identified in the various studies, although in the main the focus is on improved L2 proficiency. For example, the participants in Aguilar's study (2015) perceived the advantages of EMI practice for their students were improved English proficiency. In turn, they believed their students would be advantaged by this, having more opportunities for obtaining employment after graduation. This was also supported in the results from Arno-Marcia and Mancho-Bares' study (2015). A similar finding also emerged from Basibek et al.'s (2014) study. Specifically, the teachers in that study perceived that, in addition to an improved academic and social environment, students in an EMI program would benefit in their business lives after university. In a somewhat different vein, but still related to developing L2 proficiency, the lecturers in Floris' (2014) study specifically mentioned the benefits of their own improved English from EMI practice at their university.

### **3.3.4 The challenges of EMI practice**

Despite the positive views about EMI practice outlined in a number of studies, numerous challenges related to the practice of EMI have been described in the literature. The results of some studies (e.g., Vinke et al., 1998; Basibek et al., 2014, and Werther et al., 2014) found that amongst the major challenges for teachers in practising EMI were switching between languages and in arranging EMI learning materials. Other studies, for example, Goodman's (2014) ethnographic study examined the practice of EMI by conducting classroom observations in nine English medium and three Russian medium courses and also by undertaking interviews with the lecturers. Her study suggested that regardless of the lecturers' proficiency in English, they often expressed anxiety about whether their knowledge of English was sufficient for teaching. Airey's (2011) study examined lecturers' perspectives in a different way. Specifically, 18 teaching staff members at two Swedish universities were given teaching training for 12 weeks. After practising EMI, the lecturers were asked their opinion about EMI practice. They had several concerns including

explaining the lesson in more depth in L2 and providing corrections or feedback in L2, which they found was more challenging than in L1.

Therefore, in addition to which EMI teaching methods to use, the language proficiency of both lecturers and students' is perceived as the main challenge for the implementation of EMI (Arno-Macia & Manco-Bares, 2015; Coleman, 2006; Floris, 2014; Kırkgöz, 2009), and this issue is common across most contexts. For example, this was found in Coleman's (2006) study based in some universities in Europe, Floris's (2014) study in a university in Indonesia, and Kırkgöz's study in Turkey (2009). These studies also identified the need for the training of the local teachers and students in EMI practices.

### **3.3.5 Support for EMI practice**

To overcome the potential challenges surrounding EMI, researchers have investigated the type of support required for this practice to succeed. Generally, they identified teachers' demand for greater knowledge about EMI methods and the need for improved language skills to effectively support the students' English language learning (Flowerdew, Li, & Miller, 1998; Tatzl, 2011). Similarly, Floris (2014) suggests a need to improve the communication skills of the content lecturers and to support this, the need to establish a collaborative work environment for the content and language lecturers.

The need for training about EMI practice, particularly in relation to teaching methodology, has emerged in other research. For example, Klaassen and De Graaff (2001) examined the perspectives of lecturers in Delft University of Technology in the Netherlands, specifically about training workshops in EMI teaching methods. The training included content delivery in English and second language acquisition processes. The findings showed lecturers became aware of students' learning needs and understood effective lecturing behaviour in EMI classrooms. It is important to note with regard to this study that the lecturers' English proficiency may have contributed to their positive perspectives. They had an average score of 635 on Institutional Test Practice (ITP) TOEFL (Klaassen & De Graaff, 2001). This score is significantly higher than the proficiency level of graduates of those in other European settings. In addition,

training about the use of teaching resources, multimedia and other online materials for EMI implementation was also evidenced (e.g., Perez Canado's, 2014).

Nevertheless, lecturers' attitudes towards training are important to consider. There are various reasons for teaching staff refusing to be trained. For example, the reluctance of some teachers for language training in Werther et al.'s (2014) study was because they viewed it as time-consuming. Despite this, they indicated a belief that there was value for both the students and the teachers in improving their English skills, including providing them with better access to international events. Such international-related events could be visiting an English-speaking country or attending in-house training by English-speaking experts (Werther et al., 2014). These issues appear to be relevant to the drive for global EMI practice.

In summary, both theoretical and empirical studies suggest a need to further examine lecturers' perspectives of EMI practice, particularly in the current context where only limited research has been conducted in this regard. Previous research about EMI provides the conceptual framework of the present study, which will be presented in the following section. This provides a set of guiding principles against which judgement and predictions can be made, it also provides a structure for the organisation of the content and from which conclusions can be drawn (Smyth, 2014).

### **3.4 The conceptual framework of the study**

The present study explores the perspectives of the lecturers in their current situation and conditions. Multiple theoretical and contextual perspectives underpin the current research process, which are based on the review of the literature, as shown in Figure 4. The figure explains how EMI is conceptualised from the pedagogy of bilingual education, from which types of bilingual teaching approach are practised according to the context. The figure also shows that in addition to EMI, some other terms including CLIL and CBI are being used to reflect the types of bilingual education practised globally. Some implications of bilingual education and approaches including the challenges and necessary support are also included in the framework. When challenges are encountered with relevant support, the perceived benefits may be obtained.

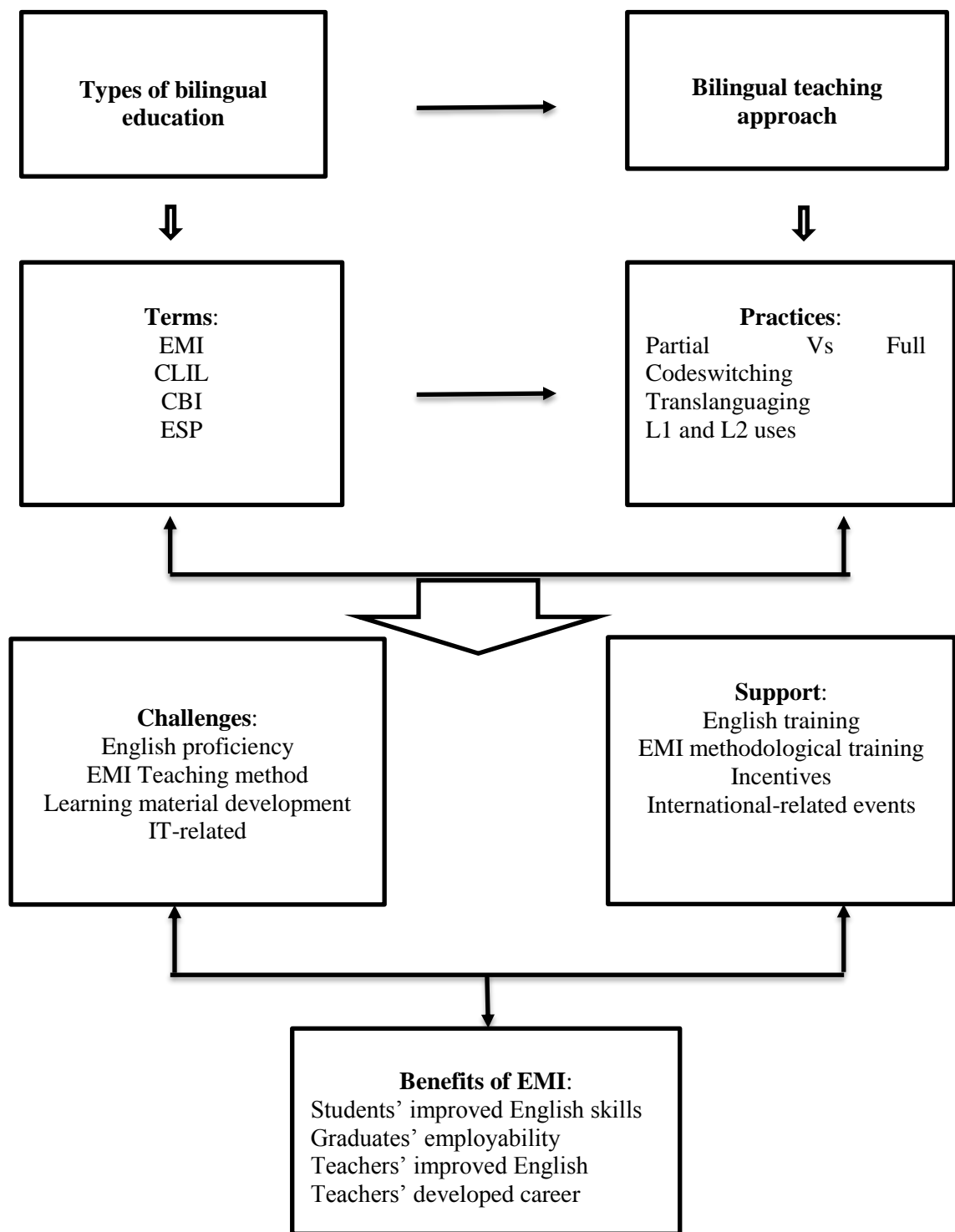


Figure 3: The conceptual framework of the study



### **3.5 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter has reviewed the literature concerning EMI and teachers' perspectives on the positive outcomes and challenges of this practice in the global context. It has also outlined the strategies used in EMI practice in the classroom. The review suggests a need for an investigation of lecturers' perspectives about EMI practices.

Therefore, this study has been designed to explore the lecturers' perspectives on EMI practice in a university in Indonesia. It addresses three research questions as follows:

1. What are the lecturers' perspectives on English medium instruction (EMI practice) at a university in Indonesia, specifically:
  - a. What terms do the lecturers use to refer to EMI?
  - b. What types of practices do they think they should adopt to practice EMI?
  - c. What do they think are the benefits of implementing EMI at their institution?
  - d. What support do the teachers perceive is necessary to implement EMI successfully
2. How consistent are the lecturers' views on the issues of EMI across the institution?
3. Do the lecturers' backgrounds affect their perception of each issue in EMI practice?

The next chapter will outline the methodology used and the research design of the study.

## **CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **4.0 Introduction**

This chapter provides a detailed description of the methodology used in this study, drawing in part on the literature reviewed in the previous chapter. The next section (4.1) introduces the mixed methods approach used to answer the research questions - as outlined in Chapter Three. Section 4.2 provides a description of the theoretical paradigm informing the research approach adopted within this study. The following section (4.3) describes the setting in which the present study was conducted. Next, the first phase of the research is explained in Section 4.4. This includes a description of the key data collection methods utilised during this qualitative phase, namely the focus group and in-depth individual interviews. It also involves an overview of the data analysis and the establishment of trustworthiness. A description of the second phase of the study is provided in section 4.5. This includes the justification of employing a questionnaire and the measures undertaken for establishing its reliability and validity. The final sections cover ethical issues (4.6) and a summary of the Chapter (4.7).

### **4.1 Research approach**

The purpose of the study is to examine lecturers' perspectives on English medium instruction (EMI) practice at Pondasi University. As such, a large number of participants (i.e., lecturers) have been included in this study and a mixed-methods approach has been used to explore their perceptions. Specifically, reflecting a concern with contextual issues and so that a thick description of the of Pondasi University lecturers' understanding of EMI could be produced, in the first phase of the study, focus group and semi-structured individual interviews were conducted to uncover the topics or themes from the lecturers. Thus the first phase involved qualitative methods. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) define a qualitative method as

A situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that makes the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations,

photographs, recordings, and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. (p. 3).

Further, to explore the dynamic constructed knowledge of the lecturers, multiple methods of qualitative data collection and analysis were used. This was done so that the lecturers' personal interpretations and experiences could be explored in-depth to obtain rich and detailed information (Miles & Huberman, 1994) directly from the original source. Conducting both types of interviews allowed for building rapport with the participants. In this way, not only could 'what' questions be elaborated, but the 'why' and 'how' questions (Yin, 2009) could also be explored.

Next a survey was undertaken using a purposely-designed questionnaire to measure the perceptions of the lecturers (i.e., their thoughts, feelings, values, and beliefs) thus exploring the pattern of EMI understanding of a wider group of lecturers (Johnson & Christensen, 2012) within this particular Indonesian university.

By adopting a mixed method design, it was possible to achieve triangulation (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). This enabled both the strengths and weaknesses of qualitative and quantitative methods to be counterbalanced (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

This study focused on just one institution and, therefore, a case study approach has also been adopted. Yin (2009) defines a case study as an inquiry approach designed to understand a real-life phenomenon in depth, and this understanding is surrounded by substantial contextual conditions (Yin & Davis, 2007). Of the three types of case studies, intrinsic, instrumental, and collective (Stake, 2000), this study adopted the instrumental style of a case study because its goal is to provide insight into one issue, namely EMI instruction and in particular teachers' beliefs about this, and related to this, their practices and the implications this information has for policy.

To summarise, this research adopted a mixed methods exploratory and sequential design for collecting and analysing both qualitative and quantitative data. This

particular mixed methods design had two phases: the researcher commenced with qualitative procedures exploring the issues within a case study, before establishing the second, quantitative phase (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Figure 4 summarises the research procedures of the mixed-methods research design.

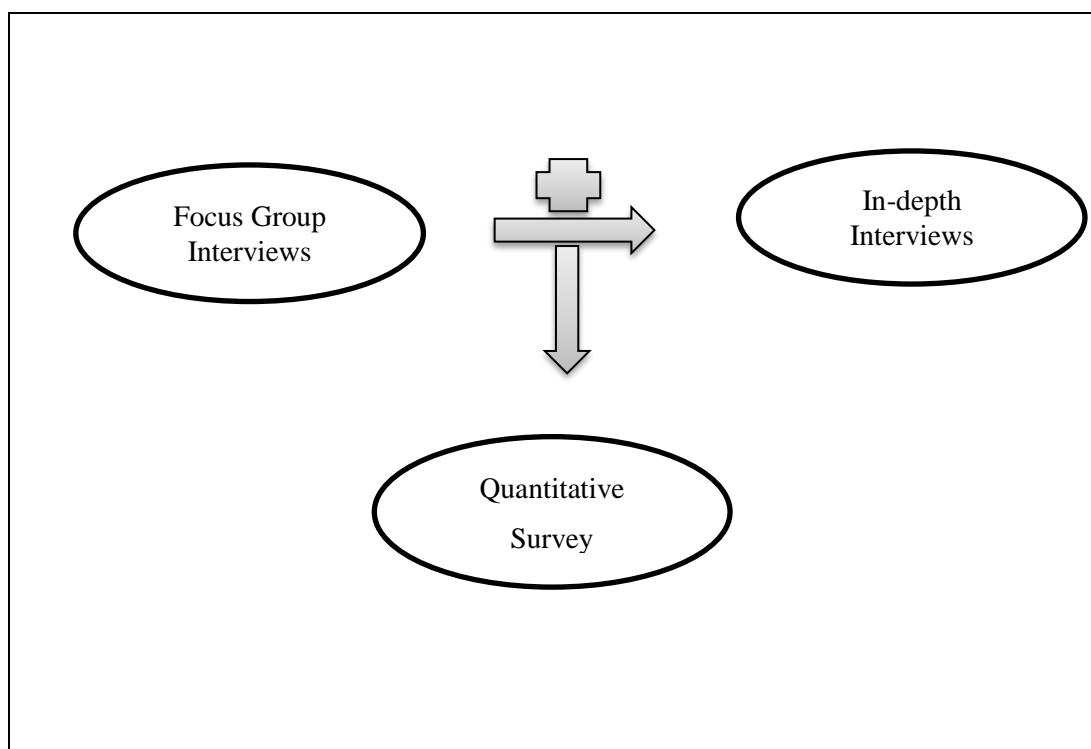


Figure 4: Research procedures

## 4.2 Research paradigm

Using a mixed method approach (as described above) situates this current study within a post-positivist paradigm and in particular pragmatism is adopted within this study. Pragmatists view the world as one that is constantly changing with emerging phenomena, hence they recommend that in order to respond to those phenomena a paradigm should be flexible (Henderson & Kesson, 2004). Unlike positivists, who depend solely on measurement for their inquiry, pragmatists also adopt qualitative tools such as interviews. With the use of multiple instruments, the integration of both qualitative and quantitative approaches into the inquiry method is possible (Morgan, 2007).

Pragmatists see a close relationship between knowledge or theory and practice. The way in which pragmatism's epistemology works is through connecting theory to its counterpart, practice, and noting the relationship between these elements (Henderson & Kesson, 2004). Despite this relationship, a few cautionary points should be carefully considered. First, research is not a manual for educational practice, nor is teaching the application of educational research, instead pedagogy should be informed by research (Biesta & Burbules, 2003). In this way research and teaching should complement one another.

By taking a pragmatic approach (Kuhn, 1970) it is also possible to gain a sense of intersubjectivity (Morgan, 2007). This is because truth is multiple and temporary, being dependent on its own context. Therefore, in the current study the findings obtained were co-constructed by both the researcher and the participants. For example, being the interviewer during gathering data has allowed the use of the term "bilingual class" to guide the conversation, as this was the particular term was used in the research context.

The qualitative first phase meant that a constructivist-interpretivist paradigm was adopted in this research. This paradigm aims to reconstruct the self-understanding of humans engaged in particular actions (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 193) and to understand the subjective worldview of a particular experience (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Since people's experiences are dynamic, their understanding continues to be constructed (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). In this sense, the current study focused on social matters (namely EMI) which are located in the constructivist paradigm.

In the second phase, the contextual issues that emerged from the first phase of the study were brought into the post-positivist paradigm guiding the need for identifying and measuring variables (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011) in a larger sample. Thus multiple worldviews could be investigated.

### **4.3 Research setting**

The research was undertaken at Pondasi University, in Pontianak, West Borneo, Indonesia. The university was chosen for several reasons. First of all, having been a teaching member in the university for almost ten years, the researcher was able to access the research context, and thus to increase the feasibility of the study. The participants' familiarity with the researcher and research setting led to a more natural situation for the research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Holstein & Gubrium, 2003; Wilkinson, 2004). This avoided any suspicion and helped to build a supportive rapport with the teaching staff participants (i.e., lecturers).

The second reason for selecting the research setting was that this institution has been introducing bilingual classes (i.e., EMI practice) since 2012 as a way to address its goal of obtaining international recognition by 2020 (Pondasi University, 2015c). Therefore, this provided an ideal timeframe where the initiative was still relatively new, but a sufficient time frame had lapsed to ensure that at least some of the participants would have had experience with the EMI program.

### **4.4 Phase one of the research**

As indicated, the first stage of the research used qualitative approaches. In this section the way the sample was selected for this first phase is described. Next the process of collecting data is presented. Following this, the data analysis is described. This section closes with a description of how the trustworthiness of this qualitative phase of the study was maintained.

#### **4.4.1 Sample selection**

The participants were the university teaching staff of Pondasi University. These lecturer-participants were drawn from several departments of Pondasi University and had a range of EMI teaching experience. To maximise the quality of information obtained, purposive sampling (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009) was used to identify the key informants for the focus group and in-depth interviews. To ensure rich information

was collected (Patton, 1990; Creswell, 2005), lecturers with different degrees of experience in EMI practice were deliberately included.

For the focus group there were five groups with three to six participants in each group (Kruger & Casey, 2009). In total 21 lecturers participated. The composition of the five groups is illustrated with the profile of each lecturer in Table 8 below.

Table 8: Categories of focus group interviews

Group	English proficiency*	Teaching experience	EMI teaching experience
One	Higher English proficiency Overseas study (Japan, Germany)	>10 years	No
Two	Higher English proficiency	<10 years	No
Three	Lower English proficiency	>10 years	No
Four	Lower English proficiency	<10 years	No
Five	Higher English proficiency English-speaking countries study		Yes

\*measured by their 450+ scores on TOEFL

As Table 8 indicates, the focus groups were composed of two main categories of lecturers, those who had EMI experience and those who did not. There was one group (Group Five) consisting of six EMI experienced lecturers and four groups of three to five non-EMI-teaching-experienced lecturers. The latter category was divided into two sub-categories. The first one related to years of teaching experience, and was in turn split into participants with more than 10 years of experience and those with less. It is worth noting that their length of teaching experience also reflected the age of the participants. Specifically, those with less than 10 years of teaching experience were younger academics; while the other group was made of up mature staff members. The other sub-category was based on the participants' English proficiency, as evidenced by their TOEFL scores and their experience of pursuing higher degree studies overseas.

All participants in the individual interviews also participated in the focus group interviews. Five lecturers were purposefully selected (e.g., based on their EMI experience, English proficiency and the quality of their responses in the focus groups) and invited to participate in the individual interviews. The information about each of these lecturers is given in Table 9. The intent of this selection strategy was to probe those issues derived from the preceding data collection (i.e., the focus groups). For example, some participants in the focus groups brought up the issue of the partial English instruction model, L1 use and the curriculum change. During the in-depth interviews, these issues were further examined in depth.

Table 9: Profiles of lecturers in the individual interviews

Lecturer (pseudonyms used)	Courses taught	EMI teaching experience	EMI teaching method training
Dina	Entrepreneurship	Yes	Yes
Tari	Programming 1 and 2	Yes	No
Satrio	Mechanics	No	No
Agung	Mathematics	Yes	No
Susi	Quality Management Systems (QMS)	Yes	Yes

#### 4.4.2 Data collection

The focus group and semi-structured individual interviews were conducted in order to uncover key issues related to EMI topics or themes from the lecturers. Focus group interviews (Kruger & Casey, 2000; Bryman, 2008) were conducted to allow the main concerns of the participants, especially those pertinent to their perspectives on EMI practice, to emerge.



### ***Focus group interviews***

Focus group interviews are defined by Krueger and Casey (2009) as “a carefully planned series of discussions designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive, nonthreatening environment” (p2). These specific discussions, led by a moderator (also the researcher in this case), were designed to seek rich information on a particular issue in a more intellectual way (Goldman in Stewart, Shamdasani, & Rook, 2007). The study utilised focus group interviews as an instrument for gathering relevant information because through this specific data collection technique, a variety of perceptions on EMI could be obtained.

The development of the interview schedule was informed by the literature in the area.

The key questions asked concerned:

- a) The lecturers’ familiarity with the term EMI itself and their strategies of EMI practice in the classroom;
- b) The collaboration between content and language specialists;
- c) The challenges in terms of adapting the curriculum and translating the learning materials;
- d) Other potential challenges of EMI practice at Pondasi University; and,
- e) Potential opportunities for EMI practice at Pondasi University.

The responses to these questions were interrogated and used to inform the questions used in the individual in-depth interviews. In the focus groups the questions were arranged from more general to specific (Krueger, 2009). This funnel approach (Stewart et al., 2007) was used so that the main points could be obtained. Some changes were made according to the characteristics of the participants. This meant that different categories of lecturers had different questions. For example, while EMI-teaching-experienced lecturers were asked about their experiences and challenges of practicing EMI, the participants without EMI teaching experience were asked about their confidence and feelings about practising EMI at Pondasi University. (The focus group interview protocol appears in Appendix 1).

It should be noted, however, that the prepared schedule of questions was a not static document. New and different questions including the link between skills from EMI practice and the industries which would hire the graduates were asked, as the group

responses developed. As Stewart et al. (2007) suggest, this was done because “A focus group is a dynamic and idiosyncratic exercise, so such flexibility in pursuing new questions is critical to the success of the interview” (p.62). It was found that this strategy produced rich information (as described in the Findings Chapter).

After the interview schedules were developed, the next step involved pilot testing the questions (Krueger, 2009; Stewart et al., 2007). This was done with Indonesian colleagues prior to the interviews being conducted. This allowed for any necessary improvements to be made and thereby overcoming any potential pitfalls and difficulties. Next, careful consideration was given to the role of the moderator in the interviews. In this study, the moderator was the researcher.

The role of the moderator in focus group interviews is crucial and there are some key traits and skills necessary for that person to acquire. These attributes include adaptability to situations, ability to encourage people to participate, conceptual skills necessary for questioning and fluency in speaking (Yuki in Stewart et al., 2007). The position of the researcher as a member of this University’s teaching staff enabled her to achieve success as the moderator of the discussions because she could anticipate problems and to easily make any necessary changes as required. For example, the original plan was to interview the EMI-experienced group first; however, it was necessary to change this due to the fact that most of the participants had difficulty in meeting at the specified time.

Apart from the researcher’s position as a member of the University, there were also some other factors that enabled her to meet the requirements of being a good moderator. Firstly, the researcher shared the language of the participants, and hence the interviews were conducted in Indonesian. With this shared language, the researcher was able to select the appropriate wording for questions and was able to use the participants’ own vocabulary in the interviews.

In addition to the shared language and culture, the researcher-moderator was knowledgeable about this research topic through the coursework and workshops she had undertaken, and the training she had received about this particular topic. Furthermore, she consciously adopted the personal traits necessary to be a good

qualitative research moderator (Stewart et al., 2007). These include being insightful (Langer, in Stewart et al., 2007) about participants. Instead of asking leading questions of the participants, some probing questions such as ‘why’ questions were used and more time was allowed for the participants to provide their answers and responses. However, an analysis of the focus group interview data suggests that the researcher did not always achieve this and this understanding informed the next data collection round, namely the individual interviews.

Even so, there were several advantages in conducting focus group interviews in the first stage of the study. First of all, it was an efficient way to interview participants and the focus group interviews saved time (Creswell, 2012). However, as Krueger (2009) warns there are potential problems in undertaking them effectively in the agreed time as was experienced in the current research. Despite this, the interactions did yield rich information from the participants (see Chapter 5 - Findings), as literature indicated should occur (Creswell, 2012). This was strengthened by purposefully grouping the participants according to common characteristics allowing issues relevant to the context to be elicited.

Despite the precautions that were put in place, some challenges were experienced. Working to ameliorate bias, including unfavourable responses, as suggested by Stewart et al. (2007) was a particular challenge. For example, when asked their opinion about the language support provided by a language lecturer to the students in the EMI classroom, participant Tari expressed a particular point of view that was counter to the majority of evidence in the literature. This led the researcher to probe further. Another challenge was that the focus group interviews did at times elicit trivial or simple answers – something about which other researchers have cautioned (e.g., Bell, 2005; Krueger, 2009). This also occurred at times in the current study and to address this, after a preliminary analysis, follow-up emails were sent to participants to delve further into particular issues they raised.

The follow up emails also enabled additional questions to be asked which helped address the concern of the limited time available in the interviews (Krueger, 2009). This allowed for a more detailed description of the various issues. For example, details about the Quality Management System (QMS) course which used EMI were requested.

Thus, in addition to obtaining additional information, these follow-up conversations boosted the understanding of the topic (Creswell, 2012).

### ***Individual interviews***

Following the focus group interviews, in-depth individual interviews, or “purpose-driven conversations” (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000) were conducted. In-depth individual interviews are “a qualitative research technique that involves conducting individual interviews with a small number of respondents to explore their perspectives on a particular idea, program, or situation” (Boyce & Neale, 2006, p. 3). In this study, these interviews involved a set of basic questions derived from the focus group interviews, allowing for the issues that had emerged to be explored more deeply (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2012).

The participants in these individual interviews were selected because four of them had practised EMI for some time and one of them had observed this practice while overseas undertaking further study. Drawing on such experiences certain issues such as L1 use in EMI classrooms and practical strategies for use in EMI classrooms, could be probed in depth. In this stage of the data collection the interviews were audio and visually recorded for the purpose of supplementary multimodal data analysis approach (which is described in the following section).

Undertaking individual interviews offered several advantages (Creswell, 2012). First, they enabled useful information of the type which is often resistant to observation (Bryman, 2008), to be collected. The issues that were raised from the review of the literature (Creswell, 2012), specifically concerning the ways in which L1 and L2s are used in EMI practice, and the assessment methods for EMI classrooms, were able to be explored in some depth during the interviews. Additionally, the interviews made it easier to elicit the specific information required. In this way, important issues not already emerging from the focus group data could be obtained (Silverman, 1997, p. 95). For example, more detailed features of several courses such as Programming 1 and 2, Entrepreneurships, and Mathematics were able to be investigated in these individual interviews.

To enhance the conditions for obtaining rich information from the participants, open-ended questions were employed. This allowed the respondents to define their worldview in unique ways (Denzin, 1970). In addition, to allow for greater flexibility no fixed sequence of questions was used and in this way the order was suitable for all the participants. (The individual interview protocol appears in Appendix 2).

There are a number of limitations related to in-depth interviews and measures were put in place to overcome these. Creswell (2012) suggests some of the drawbacks of one-on-one interviews, firstly, that they are time-consuming and costly approach. To overcome this potential drawback in the current study only five participants were individually interviewed. The interview schedule allowed for a focussed approach and so the duration of most interviews were only 30 minutes, with all being conducted in a total of about three hours. In addition, participants might have been reluctant to give up time to express their ideas in face-to-face, however, by inviting lecturers who had already been in the focus group interviews they understood how the data collection would take place and they could not only express their views without hesitancy, but also understood the time commitment (Creswell, 2012).

#### **4.4.3 Data analysis**

Thematic analysis was used to analyse all the qualitative data. Further, to enrich the analysis of the data, particularly the in-depth interview transcripts, multi modal analysis was also used.

##### ***Thematic analysis***

Thematic data analysis (Erlandson et al., 1993; Bryman, 2008) was the primary way data were analysed during the qualitative phase of the study. This entailed interpreting the meaning from the content of the texts (i.e., interview transcripts) and allowing key themes to emerge. Steps for qualitative data analysis and interpretation included coding, grouping the themes, displaying data, making meaning of and interpreting the findings, and validating the accuracy of the results (Creswell, 2012).

Coding, as occurs with the majority of qualitative data analysis (Bryman, 2008), was the starting point in the analysis of this first phase of the study. According to Saldana

(2009) a code “is most often a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data” (p.3). This definition was applied and used to code each meaningful expression the participants uttered during the current study. Further, this present study implemented First and Second Cycle coding (Saldana, 2009). During the First Cycle coding, the elemental methods (Saldana, 2009) were used, where the structural coding was conducted. This meant that at first of all data were coded based on the question protocols. This particular coding indexed the topic and initially categorises the data corpus (Saldana, 2009).

In addition to the structural coding, descriptive coding was also used. This involved the application of descriptive codes and more detailed ‘subcodes’ (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This particular level of coding was an essential foundation for the Second Cycle coding and for further analysis and interpretation (Wolcott, in Saldana, 2009) within the current study. Specifically to group the themes, when a theme was identified, it was then refined to the point at which it could be applied to the entire corpus of texts.

The rationale for including the descriptive coding was that it better suited the naturalistic style of the study and in particular it better catered for the analysis of new information that emerged in each stage of data collection. For example, the issue of the relevance of English skills to industries’ needs was not in the question protocol, but this concern was raised in two of the focus group interviews. These emergent data were identified and codified into the theme of benefits of EMI. It also allowed, not only for major themes to be identified from the data, but for searches for rules and explanations of the data to occur (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

All information from both types of interviews underwent this thematic content analysis process described above. Gaining new themes through each stage of the data collection required an interactive process of data analysis during data collection at the research site and after data collection away from the research site. This process also allowed for data reduction by selecting and focusing, abstracting, and transforming the data in the transcriptions (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This particular activity was done during the coding and grouping of themes (Creswell, 2012). From these lengthy procedures of data analysis, “three concurrent flows of activity, data reduction, data

display and conclusion drawing/verification” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 10) were the main activities of the data analysis during the qualitative phase of the current study. Figure 5 summarises the interactive model of data analysis for this study.

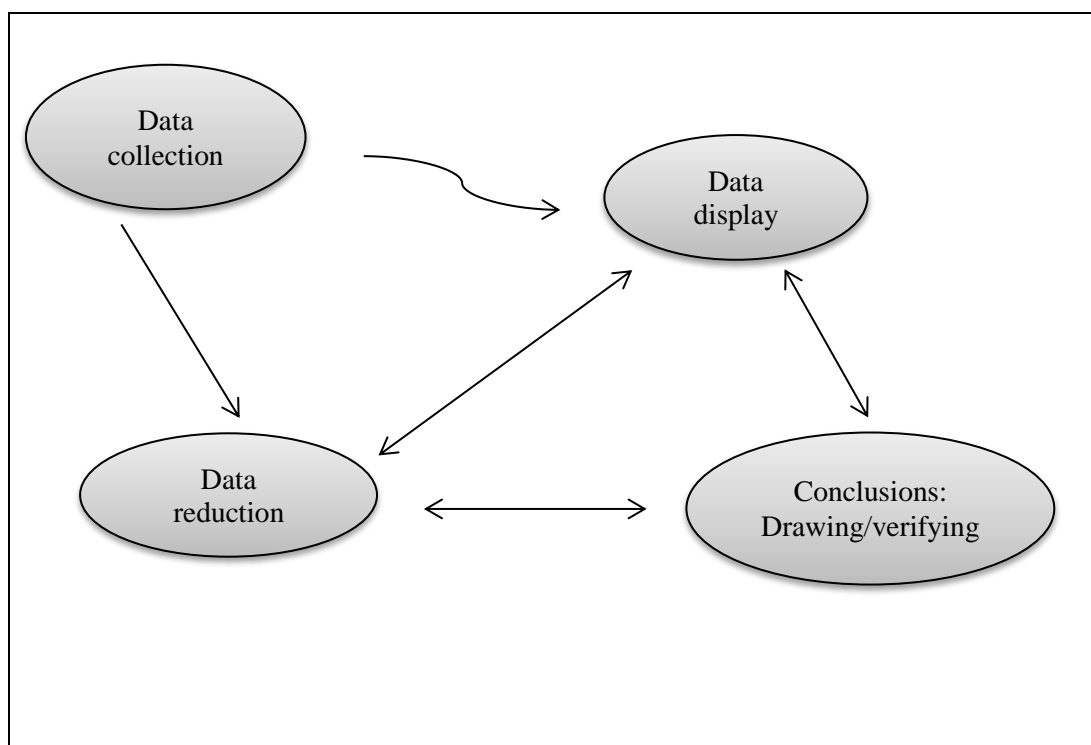


Figure 5: Components of data analysis: interactive model (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Despite the iterative nature of this analysis, there was an element of interpretation attached to the current study. It must also be acknowledged that the researcher’s prior knowledge may have influenced her during the data analysis stage. To address this, the reliability of the data analysis was subject to careful scrutiny. This was done by means of peer debriefing. This is “a process of exposing oneself to a disinterested peer in a manner paralleling an analytical session and for the purpose of exploring aspects of the inquiry that might otherwise remain only implicit within the inquirer’s mind,” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 308). Peers from the institution in which the researcher was enrolled during the study were invited to a group discussion where the themes and subthemes were reassessed by the whole group until consistency was achieved.

### ***Multimodal analysis***

In addition to thematic analysis, the individual interviews were also subject to multimodal analysis. Multimodal analysis is an approach used to examine how multimodal, or non-linguistics resources, combined with linguistic choices, to create meaning in communication (O'Halloran, Tan, & E, 2014). To understand communication “the full range of communicational forms people use - gesture, gaze, and posture, and so on – and the relationships between these” (Jewitt, 2014, p.15), are useful for the purpose of analysis and particularly for ascertaining meaning. In particular, it allowed for in-depth exploration of the emerging themes and to detect any of the participants' behaviour that might have gone unnoticed as the moderator focused on understanding the ideas a participant expressed. By looking at the audio-visual data, this information could be analysed meticulously and with multiplicative resources (Jewitt, 2014) of meaning making, key themes could be confirmed.

To do this in the current study, the nonverbal expressions of each participant were analysed by focusing on the relationship of the nonverbal modes to the verbal expression. This ‘usage’ of nonverbal behaviour, according to Ekman and Friesen (1969), can be for augmenting, repeating, emphasising, illustrating, or contradicting. Such ‘usage’ places nonverbal behaviour in a situation of anticipating, coinciding with, substituting, or following linguistic modes. For example, when the lecturers expressed disagreement with a statement, they might do this by the most culturally common behaviour of shaking their head.

Out of the five categories (“emblems”, “illustrators”, “affect displays”, “regulators”, and “adaptors”) of nonverbal behaviour identified Ekman and Friesen (1969), this study focused on examining “emblems” or what Kendon (1997) calls “gestures” or “a movement of body or of any part of it that is expressive of thought or feeling” (Kendon, 1997, p.109). This was because this particular category differs from the other categories mainly in their usage and relationship to verbal behaviour. “Emblems” are “those nonverbal acts which have a direct verbal translation, or dictionary definition, usually consisting a word or two, or perhaps a phrase” (Ekman & Friesen, 1969). For example, when one of the lecturers, Dina, closed her eyes and pointed with her finger, this behaviour was interpreted as ‘an emphasis to her utterance’.



Thus the multi-modal analysis of the individual interviews focused on identifying the participants' nonverbal behaviour and gestures, as summarised in Figure 6.

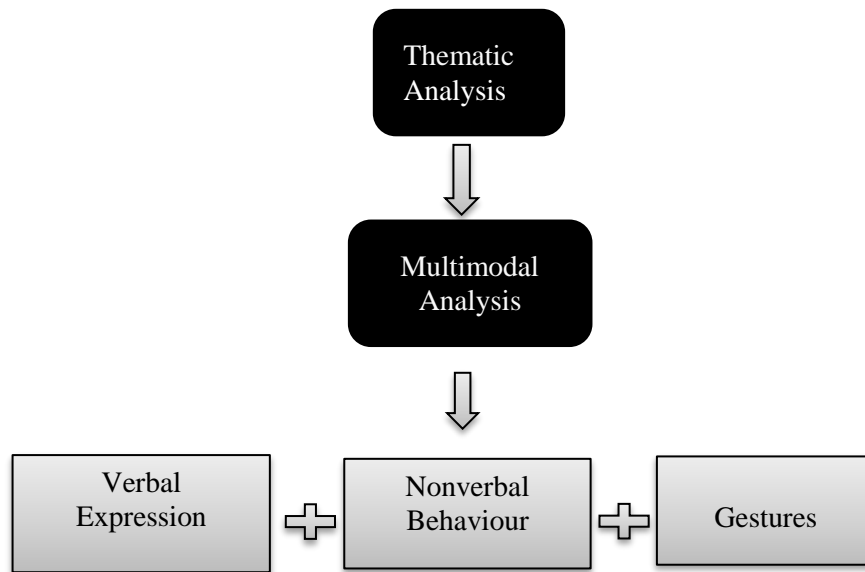


Figure 6: The theoretical framework of the in-depth interviews using multimodal analysis.

As indicated in Figure 6, following thematic analysis, multimodal analysis was conducted to examine the individual interview data, which were then displayed in conceptual matrix (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

#### 4.4.4 Trustworthiness

The trustworthiness of the current study was established by firstly providing a thick description (Erlandson et al., 1993) through multiple methods of data collection. This allowed for the establishment of a rich database. Secondly, respondent validation was also conducted to attain research credibility. Validation of the interview transcripts was also done with the respondents. This was done by asking four respondents to check the transcripts and the interpreted themes and subthemes (Creswell, 2012).

Moreover, confirmability was achieved through an audit to find evidence of any reasonable level of bias in the data - in the transcribing process, data reduction and analysis, or in the development of the questionnaire surveys. As described previously, this neutrality criterion was done through peer debriefing. There were eight peers who were involved in this process. There were also lecturers, coming from several disciplines and regions in Indonesia, who were pursuing their doctoral study in the university where the researcher conducted this study. This peer debriefing facilitated

the researcher's consideration of methodological activities and provided feedback concerning the accuracy and completeness of the researcher's data analysis procedures. In addition, the data documentation allowed for data tracking in the overall process of exploration and interpretation in order to demonstrate consistency within the data.

#### **4.5 Phase two of the research**

Those issues that emerged from the first phase of the research informed the development of the survey which was used to collect data in the second phase of this research. Questionnaires were distributed to a representative sample of discipline lecturers. Of the 150 distributed, 111 were completed and returned. Two of the completed and received questionnaires were not used for analysis because the participants were sessional teaching staff. Thus, 109 completed questionnaires constitute the data collected and analysed in the second phase of the study.

##### **4.5.1 Sample selection**

This exploratory mixed-method study used non-probability sampling to identify possible participants because one of the aims of the study in this second phase was to compare and contrast the views of a few lecturers on the first phase of the study with a large number of lecturers in the University. Furthermore, the use of this sampling technique addressed the issue of there being a big gap in the number of participants in each specified category (as indicated in Table 10). Another objective of this particular stage was to examine and understand the relationships between the teachers' perspectives and their background information (Howitt & Cramer, 2014). Thus the questionnaire participants responded to included questions about their age, educational qualifications, career level, and EMI teaching experience. This particular strategy was designed to provide breadth and depth of understanding, and corroboration (Bryman, 2008) to the study. The following tables present the characteristics of the full time lecturers who complete the questionnaire.

Table 10: The number of the lecturers with their age category participating in the survey

Age				
25-31	32-38	39-45	46-52	53-60
3	38	37	28	3

Table 11: The number of the lecturers with their career level category participating in the survey

Career level						
IIIA	IIIB	IIIC	IIID	IVA	IVB	IVC
6	9	26	22	31	10	5

Table 12: The number of the lecturers with their educational background category participating in the survey

Educational background		
Bachelor	Master	Doctoral
6	98	5

Table 13: The number of the lecturers with their EMI teaching experience category participating in the survey

EMI teaching experience	
Yes	No
16	93

As can be seen in the above tables, there was unbalanced composition in the number of participants particularly in the lecturers' educational background and EMI teaching experience categories. This reflects the characteristics of the teaching staff at the University and, therefore, is a representative sample of the teaching cohort at the university.

#### 4.5.2 Questionnaire development

The questions used in the questionnaire were generated from the information obtained from both the focus group and individual interviews. The questionnaire was designed

in a structured way (Bryman, 2008) reflecting four main issues that emerged from the data in Phase One of the study. They were “terms used to refer to EMI”, “practical issues in EMI classroom”, “benefits of EMI teaching”, and “support needed for EMI practice”.

A four-point-Likert scale was adopted for this instrument and the option of “undecided”, or “doubt” was avoided because of the purpose of this current study.

Prior to questionnaire administration, pilot testing of the survey was done with a number of colleagues (four) in both the home University and the university in which the researcher conducted the study, to ensure that the questions were understandable.

#### **4.5.3 Questionnaire administration**

As indicated previously, the questionnaires were distributed to a 150 lecturers. The questionnaires were distributed via the study program office and each lecturer was given a single questionnaire. This was done as a stratified random sample so that a representative number of participants from the different demographic groups (i.e., age, EMI teaching experience, educational qualifications) were surveyed. They returned the completed questionnaires in a sealed envelope to the office at a time convenient to them. As described above, a total of 109 of the collected were available for analysis.

#### **4.5.3 Data analysis**

The analysis of the quantitative data was undertaken in several stages. First, the raw data were converted into a form useful for data analysis. This meant that the participants’ responses were changed to numeric values. In addition, data entry was scanned for any errors, and variables created. The Statistical Program for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 (Field, 2005) was used for data entry and analysis.

Following this data input the data were examined for broad trends and distributions (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). A descriptive analysis (the mean, standard deviation) of each item on the instrument was then undertaken to determine the general trends in the data (The descriptive statistics are shown in Table 14). The descriptive statistics

were generated into four scales of the current study. It should be noted that this survey is a non-parametric test because the scale of one-to-four point used to score participants' perspectives is an ordinal scale and, therefore, the difference between any two scores is not the same.

Table 14: Descriptive statistics for each scale in the questionnaire

Issues and the number of variables	Average item mean	Average item standard deviation
Terms for EMI (2 variables)	2.16	0.49
Practices of EMI (10 variables)	1.92	0.35
Benefits of EMI practice (6 variables)	1.73	0.48
Supports for implementing EMI (7 variables)	1.78	0.41

As Table 14 presents, the statistical summary of number, mean and standard deviation for the four scales of the lecturers' perspectives on EMI practice. Mean values for this instrument ranged from one to four with the lower value the higher degree of their agreement with each statement. The low standard deviation ( $SD < 0.5$ ) indicates the scant disparity among the variables for each issue.

Following this descriptive analysis, the scores from the data instrument were examined to assess their validity and reliability, which will be described in the following section.

Apart from these initial data analyses, statistical analysis was also conducted on the lecturers' responses on each question (will be presented in Section 5.2.1). Furthermore, Kendall's tau test was used. This is a non-parametric measure of correlation of two ranked variables (Field, 2005). The correlation of several issues in the instrument were measured including the correlation between the terms for EMI (statements 2 and 3) and practical ways at EMI classrooms (statements 5 to 9) and between the benefits of EMI for students (statements 11 and 12) and necessary support provided to them (statements 19 – 22).

#### 4.5.4 Validity and reliability

##### *Validity*

Examining the two main aspects of the validity of the instrument was conducted. First, construct validity included translation and criterion-related validity (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). Translation validity also reflected content validity, which focused on the soundness of theoretical construct of the instrument, and face validity, which required a clear interpretation of the item, in particular for the participants). This instrument development process was done by consulting with some academic experts and pilot testing of the instrument with several colleagues from similar background to both the researcher and the participants (i.e., Indonesian, teaching experience at a university level and mixed experience with EMI).

The other aspect, criterion-related validity, was examined by undertaking a relational approach. This validity confirmed that the construct presented in the conclusions was expected based on theoretical grounds. The results of convergent validity (items in each construct or scale) and discriminant validity (items across the scales) are presented in Table 15.

Table 15: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling	
Adequacy	.832
Approx. Chi-Square	1274.682
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity    df	300
Sig.	.000

As can be seen in Table 15, the appropriateness of the instrument was also supported by the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity being statistically significant ( $<.05$ ). This value indicated that, as expected, there were some relationships between variables within the particular sub themes. This was further demonstrated in the results of a factor analysis (see Appendix 3).

It should be noted that the factor analysis suggests that the data could be extended into six scales (instead of the four that were constructed). However, it does show the interrelationship of the questions, reflecting the design of the instrument, which in turn reflects the data on which it was based (namely that obtained from the focus group and individual interviews).

### ***Reliability***

The reliability of the quantitative survey was examined for internal consistency using the measure of Cronbach's Alpha. The values of alpha for three combined variables were above 0.70 (see Table 16), which were regarded as sufficiently reliable (DeVellis, 2003). However, the value of the variable 'terms for EMI' was low. This may have resulted from the fact that there were only two items on this topic. Despite the low result of the alpha value of this particular variable, because this issue is of central importance to the study the results from these items were used. Overall, the survey instrument could be considered as reliable.

Table 16: Reliability coefficients of (Cronbach's Alphas) of the instrument

Issues and the number of variables	No. of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Terms for EMI (2 variables)	2	0.526
Practices of EMI (10 variables)	10	0.736
Benefits of EMI practice (6 variables)	6	0.841
Supports for implementing EMI (7 variables)	7	0.808

## **4.6 Ethical considerations**

In accordance with the ethical guidelines issued by the university's ethics committee, privacy and confidentiality were respected throughout the research process. Participants were met one by one before the study commenced. The goal and nature of the study were clearly explained to them. Requests were made for the lecturers to participate in the interviews and questionnaire surveys on a voluntary basis. Formal consent was sought for the interviews to be audio recorded. They were assured of their



right of withdrawal from the research study at any point without any negative consequences or giving a reason. They were provided with copies of the Information Sheet (Appendices 4 and 5) and Consent Form (Appendices 6 and 7) on the same day. They were encouraged to bring these copies with them to the interviews.

Signed consent was received from the participants prior to the commencement of the study. For reporting purposes all participants were assigned pseudonyms to ensure their identities remained confidential. They were assured that no identifying information would be included in the study. Additionally, all participants were also assured that the information they provided would be used solely according to the objectives of the research.

#### **4.7 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter has outlined the research method of the current study. The design, approaches and research procedures used were also described. Specifically, the first phase of the study was conducted using qualitative research procedures to capture contextually relevant issues concerning EMI practice in the University. Phase Two involved a quantitative survey to obtain a representative picture about the teaching staff's understanding of EMI. This mixed methods approach addresses a gap in the literature about lecturers' perspectives on EMI practices in HE institutions in Indonesia.

## **CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS**

### **5.0 Introduction**

An analysis of the research data collected from both phases of the study is presented in this chapter. First the findings from the focus group and individual interview data, based on thematic and multimodal analysis is presented in 5.1. This qualitative data analysis involves thick and rich exploration, and the emerging themes are provided in sections (5.1.1) to (5.1.4). Following these, the findings from the second phase of the study (i.e., from the questionnaire) are presented in 5.2. This involves an examination of the target university lecturers' familiarity with EMI (5.2.1) and a comparison of their demographic background factors and their responses (5.2.2). A summary of the chapter is provided in the final section (5.3).

### **5.1 Findings from phase one of the study**

This section presents the findings from the qualitative phase of the study. The critical issues that emerged from the analysis includes lecturers' understandings of EMI (5.1.1), the challenges (5.1.2), benefits (5.1.3), support necessary to implement EMI at the University (5.1.4), and key implications for EMI implementation (5.1.5). This section ends with the summary of findings from the first phase of the study.

#### **5.1.1 The understandings of EMI**

##### ***Terms used to refer EMI***

Three main issues emerged regarding the lecturers' understandings of EMI: the use of different terms, and then the ways to introduce and to practise EMI. It should be noted that the lecturers used the terms "bilingual classes" and "international classes" to refer to EMI. When asking participants to provide accounts of what they understood by the term of "bilingual classes" it should also be noted that the researcher also adopted this terminology. Hence, as part of the flow of the interviews, the descriptions were often

co-constructed with the moderator (M) in focus groups (FG), or with the interviewer (I) in individual interviews (II), for example:

M: Hmm, kelas bilingual, saya mau tanya satu satu dulu dari Pak Satrio, uhhh, sejauh mana Bapak melihat apa sih kelas bilingual itu, seperti apa dilaksanakan, nah seperti itu, sejauh apa Bapak yang. Bapak ketahui tentang kelas bilingual atau pengajaran mata kuliah di tingkat universitas ya?

Satrio: Ya, kalau di apa ya uhhh yang saya dengar ya, memang di Mesin belum ada kelas bilingual,

M: Hmmm

Satrio: Yang jelas bahwa uhh sebagian pengajaran itu dalam bahasa Indonesia, ya kalau Bahasa Indonesia dan sebagian lagi dalam bahasa asing lah gitu, uhh kalau memang bilingual Bahasa Inggris ya Bahasa Inggris. Uhh, yang saya tangkap sih seperti itu. Jadi seharusnya memang kalau kelas bilingual ya mengajarnya harus dalam berbahasa Inggris, jadi jangan hanya labelnya kelas bilingual, tapi begitu masuk, dosennya juga ngomongnya bahasa Indonesia, kan ga lucu? (FG1)

*[M: Regarding the bilingual class, I would like to ask you one by one starting from Mr. Satrio. As far as you have heard, what do you know about the bilingual class or the bilingual teaching at the university level?*

*Satrio: Yes, as far as I have heard, there are no bilingual classes in the Engineering Department yet.*

*M: hmm*

*Satrio: The thing which is clear to me is that some of the teaching is in Indonesian, and partly in the foreign language, but if it is a bilingual class with English, partly the teaching is in English. That is what I have learned. So, I think if it is a bilingual class, the teacher must teach in English. Don't just label the program as bilingual, but once inside the classroom, the lecturer speaks Indonesian. It is not funny, is it? (FG1)]*

And also:

M: Apa yang Bapak/Ibu tahu tentang kelas bilingual

.....

Karina: Kalau nurut Karina, kelas bilingual adalah kelas yang menggunakan dua bahasa, satu Bahasa Indonesia dan satunya lagi bahasa asing, dimana yang kita kenalkan disini adalah Bahasa Inggris (FG4)

[M: *So what do you know about bilingual classes?*

.....

*Karina: In my opinion, a bilingual class is a class which uses two languages, Indonesian and the foreign language. The foreign language we introduce here is English. (FG4)]*

As can be seen in these examples, both the participants and the researcher used the term “bilingual classes” when discussing EMI. In contrast, the term “international classes” was more often initiated by the participants only, and this occurred in the majority of groups:

Mungkin gini ya, kalau ada mahasiswa dari luar, luar negeri, itu wajib digunakan bahasa internasional, yaitu Bahasa Inggris, gitu (Anwar/FG4)

*[So, it is like this, if there is one student from abroad, in the class it is compulsory to use the international language, English. (Anwar/FG4)]*

International class lah mungkin ya? (Dina/FG2)

*[It's a kind of international class, right? (Dina/FG2)]*

Untuk pendidikan tinggi biasanya kelasnya kelas internasional (Lina/FG1)

*[At the university level, the class is said to be an international class (Lina/FG1)]*

Again this term appeared to be used to encapsulate the notion of EMI. However, it should be noted that the ambiguity surrounding the terminology for EMI reflects the lack of clarity about the practice in this University. Yet at the same time EMI was discussed at length. The practices pertaining to EMI are described next.

### ***The ways to introduce EMI***

During the interviews the lecturers described how EMI practice should be introduced in a gradual way throughout the University. All focus groups, with the important exception of the group with EMI teaching experience, recommended that it be done in the following way:

Tentunya dia tidak bisa apa namanya ya, langsung gitu full, dia harus step by step, Artinya apa? Artinya uhh mulai dari yang awal-awal itu, mulai dari jarang, lebih dominan Bahasa lokalnya, gitu kan dibandingkan bahasa internasionalnya. Jadi semakin diakhir itu semakin terbalik gitu. Yang diakhir itu lebih dominan bahasa internasionalnya dibandingkan. (Bento/FG4)

*[Of course, this cannot be, what do we call it? Fully. It must be step by step. What does it mean? It means from the beginning, it starts with occasional use, with the dominant use of the local language compared to the international language. So, to the end, this is the opposite, by the end the international language is more dominantly used. (Bento/FG4)]*

By using the word “step by step”, this participant’s view can be interpreted as meaning that the percentage of English used in the EMI classroom should be increased gradually in each academic year. A similar view was expressed by a lecturer in Group Three:

Kalau misalnya itu mau diterapkan saya pikir uhh ya bertahap ya Mba ya, misalnya untuk semester 1, semester 1, semester 2 ya tentunya yang berbahasa Inggris itu misalnya hanya 25 persennya kayak gitu...Kemudian naik lagi di Semester 3 dan 4 diperbanyak misalnya 50 persennya, di semester atas ya full menggunakan bahasa Inggris, gitu. (Kartika/FG3)

*[But in practice, if we want to implement it, it must be gradual. For example, for Semester 1 and Semester 2 practice 25 percent of English ...And then, for Semesters 3 and 4, it is increased to 50 percent, for example. Then in the last semesters, it is full. (Kartika/FG3)]*

This lecturer emphasised her idea by using the word “must” in describing the details of a gradual process. This view appeared to be shared by the majority of lecturers in other groups.

In addition to a gradual introduction of English language within EMI practice, the lecturers also identified specific courses suitable for EMI practice, for example, one lecturer showed support for another participant’s view that EMI practice is unsuitable for all courses, but that it should only be used for the core courses in certain departments:

Mungkin saya setuju dengan Pak Satrio tadi di fokuskan terutama di fokuskan aja di mata kuliah yang penciri dari prodi itu. (Bagus/FG1)

*[As Mr Satrio mentioned before, I agree that the courses which implement the English medium instruction are the core courses of the Department (Bagus/FG1)]*

In support of this another participant provided an explicit description of a course which they considered not suitable for EMI practice – suggesting a particular unit which was not “core” within the course:

Kemudian juga, akan lebih efektif kalau memang mata kuliah tertentu, yang cocok dalam Bahasa Inggris. Jadi seperti kewarganegaraan kan ga cocok, nasionalisme ga cocok mungkin. (Joko/FG1)

*[In addition, it will be more effective if certain courses, which are suitable in English. For example, the Citizenship is not suitable as with this the sense of nationalism is not possible. (Joko/FG1)]*

Thus in terms of introducing EMI those participants without EMI experience suggest it should be introduced gradually and that it should only be adopted in core units. Once introduced, how it is practiced in the long term is described in the next section.

### ***The ways to practise EMI***

From the lecturers’ comments, it appears that their perspectives on the ways to practise EMI have multiple tensions and complexities both with regards to their understanding about EMI and in relation to its implementation within their institution. These included the relationship between language and content and consequently the way language was used in the classroom, their pedagogical approaches, and their beliefs about the value of EMI.

With respect to the implications for pedagogical practice, the discipline lecturers raised a variety of concerns including the use of language, the use of EMI learning materials, and the approach to assessing the students’ learning.

### ***Language use for EMI classroom***

In terms of language use, some lecturers explained that they only practice partial English instruction:

Saya kan ngajar Fisika Dasar. Kalau memang anu, kami sisipkan jak, bahasa inilah, bahasa teknik, bahasa teknik untuk Bahasa Inggrisnyalah. (Anang/FG2)

*[As I teach Basic Physics, if it is going to be implemented, I might insert some technical terms. ... The English technical terms (Anang/FG2)]*

Kalau di AK, akunya semuanya pake Bahasa Inggris. Pertama memang uhh ketika masuk kita awal pengenalan, nah itu introductionnya pake bhs Inggris. (Karina/FG4)

*[For example, in greetings and in introducing the Accounting terms, I use English ... (Karina/FG4)]*

Jadi dari sini sejak awal mulai dimasukkan unsur-unsur dan terminology yang terkait dengan akuntansi khususnya, yang dalam Bahasa Inggris, bahkan soal latihan untuk, khusus untuk praktek, kita juga sudah punya modul dalam Bahasa Inggris. (Hidayat/FG5)

*[I started to include elements associated with accounting terminology in particular, in English language. We also presented the exercises in English. (Hidayat/FG5)]*

According to these lecturers, mixing L1 and L2 should take place in vocabulary teaching. The following lecturer more specifically articulated in which session of her teaching English should be used:

Nah, jadi mungkin, nanti di kelas ini ya saya selaku dosen yang menggunakan Bahasa Indonesia, untuk greeting, kemudian untuk conclusion, itu bisa menggunakan Bahasa Inggris. (Dina/II)

*[So, maybe in my classroom, in the content learning, I can use some Indonesian. In the greetings and lesson summary sections I can use English. (Dina/II)]*

It is worth noting that although these examples are very similar, the first two extracts were from lecturers who had no EMI teaching experience, while the latter were from

those with experience, thus suggesting EMI teaching experience had only limited impact on their views on the use of English in the EMI classroom.

It is noteworthy to see the response from a participant in a department in the University which has implemented the use of English, namely in the students' final project report:

Kalau kami itu di AB, alhamdulillah berkesinambungan lagi sampai anak-anak mau tugas akhir, itu kan pakai Bahasa Inggris (Santi/FG5)

*[In our department, thanks, God, it's continued until the students write their final report, which uses English (Santi/FG5)]*

As rationale for mixing L1 and L2 in EMI classroom, the lecturers pointed to their students' limited English skills as a reason for the practice they use:

...tak ada yang tahu kan? Itu masalahnya, Kalau saya fifty-fifty, 50 persen maksud saya, sedikit juga dia tahu, jadi nurut saya, menggunakan Bahasa Indonesia seratus persen, paling-paling saya gunakan kata-kata khusus untuk elemen-elemennya menggunakan Bahasa Inggris. (Suroso/FG3)

*[...because there is no student who can understand it. That is the problem. If I use fifty fifty, I mean if I practice fifty percent, they will know a little. So in my opinion it is better using 100 percent Indonesian. At least I will introduce some elements in English. (Suroso/FG3)]*

Tapi kalau memang itu memang penting banget, selain Bahasa Inggris, juga diIndonesiakan supaya tidak bias pemahamannya. (Dina/II)

*[But when it comes to the very important points of the lesson, besides English, we need to use Indonesian in order that the students won't be mistaken in their understanding. (Dina/II)]*

Evidence from the multimodal analysis undertaken with this individual interview data shows how this lecturer emphasised "very important points of the lesson" by simultaneously closing her eyes and pointing with her finger to make a point.



When asked more specifically about the use of Indonesian (L1) in EMI classrooms, the lecturers with EMI teaching experience indicated that, in order to support students' learning, key learning points were delivered in this language:

Kalau materinya sudah mulai ... kayak Algoritma itu kan saya ngajar pertama itu Algoritma itu karena udah agak apa sih membingungkan – bermain logika jadi saya pindah ke Bahasa Indonesia. (Erni/FG5)

*[When the materials get..., like Algorithms, I teach Algorithms, when it gets confusing, it relates to the logical thinking, I use Indonesian. (Erni/FG5)]*

Another lecturer who practises EMI described the specific way she used L1 during classroom teaching:

Tapi uhh itu tadi karena kita yang jelaskan Bahasa Inggris ke dalam Bahasa Indonesia mungkin agak gampang gitu. Nah misalnya kan gitu kan logika pengulangan 'for', 'to', 'do', 'for' ini, gitu kan, 'to' ini, 'do' apa nah gitu kan. Tapi kalau dijelaskan dalam Bahasa Indonesia pada akhirnya mereka mengerti juga gitu... untuk paham tapi syntax semuanya itu sebenarnya sudah dalam Bahasa Inggris. (Tari/II)

*[I explained it in Indonesian, as it might be easier to understand, for example in the lesson on logics, I gave a review of logics, 'for', 'to', 'do', 'For' means this, 'to' this, and 'do' that. When I explained it in Indonesian, the students could actually understand it. (Tari/II)]*

Hence it seems that explaining the key technical terms seemed to be a main reason for some lecturers switching to L1 during EMI practice.

Another lecturer described how, based on her EMI teaching experience, she provided both an English version of the learning materials and also an L1 version after the lesson, explaining:

Susi: Every time I finish one module

I: hmm

Susi: in this semester we have seven modules

I: hmm

Susi: So, after I finish each module, I will give them handouts in English and in Indonesian versions (II)

(Note: This and other excerpts where the participant responded in English, meant that translations are not necessary)

This teacher used this strategy to support the students' learning:

I encourage them to pay attention in my class ...in my slides when I was in class, so I don't want to them give the Indonesian first, so they don't have any effort to try to understand what (is) in my slides. (Susi/II)

This appeared to be the rationale of other lecturers as well:

Tati: Bahasa Inggris sudah, kemudian ketika slidesnya sudah ditampilkan, dan itu dalam bentuk dalam Bahasa Inggris, seperti mahasiswa, mungkin di perikanan saja mungkin ya, tidak terlalu siap untuk itu, begitu

.....

M: Trus, Bu Tati pernah mencoba sesuatu?

Tati: Akhirnya saya, dari slide yang dibaca itu, saya translatekan saja. (FG2)

*[Tati: In English. When I present the slides, which are in English, the students, maybe only the students in Fisheries Department, didn't seem ready for that.]*

.....

*M: Then, have you tried something?*

*Tati: Finally, from the slides I read, I just translated them. (FG2)]*

Tergantung daya serap anaknya juga, ada yang menjadi terbiasa menggunakan Bahasa Inggris, tapi kadang-kadang ada memang yang, ya itu tadi, masih harus dibimbing, terus dibimbing, Bahasa Indonesia, gitu. (Tari/II)

*[It depends on the students' academic level. There were some students, who already could use the English language, but there were others who need support, I need to support them by using the Indonesian language. (Tari/II)]*

It does seem that students' limited English prompted the lecturers to engage in the use of L1. However, it was unclear whether or not this was affected by their experience with EMI. Therefore, the responses from both the lecturers with and without EMI teaching experience were compared. This comparison is described next.

Based on the comparison as described above, it was found that while all lecturers saw a need to use the L1, those without EMI teaching experience identified a general need to use both English and L1 within EMI classes. They listed a number of areas when English could be used including greetings, introductions, and for the presentation of slides. In contrast, however, all the participants with EMI teaching experience reported that students' L1 was required only during key content delivery. Further, they provided a more detailed account of the way in which they used English in their teaching practice. Specifically, they described how they used English in the learning materials they provided, during question and answer sessions, during discussions, in their use of worksheets, examinations, and in the presentation of slides:

Modul atau job sheet yang sudah disiapkan dalam Bahasa Inggris. (Hidayat/FG5)

*[The modules and the work sheets were prepared in English (Hidayat/FG5)]*

Setelah itu yang hari-hari, sehari-harinya misalnya pertanyaan, ya itu bisa dalam Bahasa Inggris. (Tari/FG5)

*[So the rest such as asking the questions ...were in English (Tari/FG5)]*

Hence experience with EMI teaching practice appeared to influence the ideas some lecturers had about the practical use of the different languages in the EMI classroom. More interestingly, one lecturer from the group who had EMI teaching experience seemed to describe a translation model of teaching:

I: Can you tell me in more detail in which part is uhhh Indonesian use? In particular Indonesian, which area of teaching that you use Indonesian?

Agung: If I say something in English, I will follow it in Indonesian

I: Oh, it's like. It's always like that?

Agung: It's always like that

Thus lecturers' perspectives on the use of both L1 and L2 in EMI suggest two main types of practices, namely functional codeswitching and translation practice.

However, there were a few lecturers, especially from the groups without EMI teaching experience (Groups One and Four) who believed there was a need to fully use English only for instruction:

Kalau nurut saya bahasa Inggris Bahasa Inggris saja, Bahasa Indonesia Bahasa Indonesia saja, kadang-kadang suka ... bercampur-campur itu malah nggak baik kalau bahasa seperti itu. (Anwar/FG4)

*[So, I think if we just use English that is it. Or we just use Indonesian that is it. Sometimes mixing the languages is not good. (Anwar/FG4)]*

Even though this teacher expressed an option between fully using English or Indonesian for instruction, his belief was affirmed to be English use only:

M: Dalam hal ini berarti ada kira-kira... menurut Pak Anwar pake Bahasa Indonesia nggak didalamnya?

Anwar: Seharusnya sih kalau ... kalau kita kayak bilingual atau kelas internasional itu, kalau ada satu aja yang make orang dari luar, maka dia wajib menyelenggarakan uhh kelas itu dengan pengantar Bahasa Inggris. (FG4)

*[M: In this matter, Mr Anwar, do you think you should use Indonesian as well?]*

*Anwar: If there is a student from abroad in either bilingual class, or an international class, the instruction should be in English (FG4)]*

It is worth noting that this lecturer's belief in full English medium instruction was associated with the term 'international classes'. His previous study experience had contributed to this perception. Specifically, he had Master degree study from one of

the BHMN universities. (As described in Chapter Two, BHMN is a type of local HE institution which offers international classes). The lecturer in the following extract also had a similar background, but this time from pursuing overseas study, and appeared to relate EMI to his class:

Satrio: Kalau saya secara pribadi sih mungkin, uhh, apa namanya, cenderungnya melihatnya kalau memang ada satu mata kuliah tertentu dalam Bahasa Inggris, ya semua dalam Bahasa Inggris karena uhh apa namanya uhh switching ini justru kadang-kadang membingungkan. (Satrio/FG1)

*[In my personal opinion, I tend to see this case as the full use of English in one course because switching is sometimes confusing (Satrio/FG1)]*

His belief that EMI practice should entail instruction only in English reflects the complexity of the situation. This was also reflected in the position of another teacher with regard to his role and the students' responsibility in EMI classrooms:

Kalau nurut saya rasa ya, kalau nurut saya ya, tugas dosen [di kelas EMI] bukan lagi menyarikan, tetapi uhhh, uhhh apa namanya dia ... dia harus baca bahasa textbook itu dan memahami ... uhhh, tugas dosen ya lebih ke bidang keilmuan teknisnya (Satrio/FG1)

*[In my opinion, my personal opinion, the lecturers' responsibility [in EMI classes] is not summarising, but the students have to read the textbooks and understand them. The lecturers' task should be a focus on their field of study. (Satrio/FG)]*

In this example the lecturer's reported belief seems to reflect his rejection of the need to support the students' language learning development in EMI classrooms. This participant has considerable teaching experience and a high degree of English proficiency gained through his overseas studies, and this might contribute to the high level of expectation he holds for his students. The lecturer's description of using English-only instruction in an EMI classroom suggests his perception of "international classes" being different from "bilingual classes". Together this does provide evidence for a link between the lecturers' perspectives on what they understand about the term

EMI and the approach they believe should be adopted. It also demonstrates how the educational background of the lecturers can appear to influence their perspectives:

Kalau di ITB kebetulan ditempat saya itu, kalau ada dosen dari luar negeri, maka kelas itu wajib pengantarnya Bahasa Inggris (Anwar/FG4)

*[At ITB, the university where I studied, if there is a lecturer from abroad, the instruction must be in English. (Anwar/FG4)]*

The pattern of how the lecturers' background experience impacts on their perceptions is further explored quantitatively in section 5.2.

### ***Learning materials for EMI courses***

In the interviews the participants described different aspects related to the resources needed for EMI courses such as the language and the content used for presenting the materials (English or Indonesian, or both) and the use of multimedia learning materials.

In terms of content learning within EMI practice, they discussed the types of resources they might adopt in EMI classrooms. For example, some lecturers mentioned how they use English language textbooks in their classrooms:

Itu semua keterbaruan ilmu itu, sumbernya Bahasa Inggris semua, seperti yang Mr Karyono tadi karena mengandalkan buku text kita, itu sudah tahun 1992, berapa itu, jadi, saya ingin memotivasi mahasiswa karena ke depan uhhh, Ilmu terbaru ini dari jurnal-jurnal ilmiah, ya itu bahasa Inggris sehingga, saya kadang kalau ngajar mata kuliah SDM, kebetulan banyak apa. Uhhh koleksi e-book (Syafil/FG3)

*[The newness of knowledge/theory derives from English. As Mr. Karyono mentioned before that if we depend on our textbooks, they are old, they were (published in) 1992 or some years like that. So I want to motivate them that in the future the newness of knowledge, scientific journals will be in English, sometimes when I teach them a course such as Human Resources, fortunately I have a collection of e-books (Syafil/FG3)]*

It was also evident that some lecturers are comfortable using current learning materials which are presented in English. As another lecturer in different group indicated a lot of resources are already available in English:

Jadi, ilmu-ilmu yang terutama ilmu-ilmu kami itu bidang Gangga itu sumber-sumbernya itu masih banyak yang berbahasa Inggris. (Joko/FG1)

*[So the field of study, particularly our study in Gangga (a type of moss) has much literature which is presented in English. (Joko/FG1)]*

However, others did raise the issue about the need to adapt learning materials that are written in English for use in the EMI course:

Some materials, yes, but I do make the... some adaptation...to the curriculum, Indonesian curriculum... Some curriculum material I found it on the internet, but when I find it is in English, I write the slides in English. That's it. (Agung/II)

Thus it appears that this lecturer was concerned with a need for curriculum adaptation into the local curriculum when implementing EMI.

However, when examining the data in detail it did appear that the issue of which learning materials to use in EMI classrooms was only considered by the lecturers at a superficial level. For example, some lecturers described how the learning resources should use English exclusively. However, achieving the various language learning goals whilst at the same time developing the students' content knowledge appeared to be neglected by these teachers.

One lecturer said this:

Kalau di Arsitek itu, saya pernah coba ya, jadi tugas mahasiswa itu saya minta menterjemahkan, uhhh menerjemahkan buku, itu mereka lumayan, saya lihat uhh apa, tanggapannya lumayan baik dan saya juga sih lihat kebetulan TOEFLnya juga uhh (Lina/FG1)

*[In architecture, I once tried to ask the students to translate, a part of book. They are good enough. I noticed their responses,*

*which were also good enough. When I checked their TOEFL score, it is also (OK) (Lina/ FG1)]*

However, another lecturer expressed his disagreement with his colleague's perception:

Saya kira dalam praktek, saya nggak pernah ngasih kuliah uhhh apa... ngasih tugas, menterjemah, menterjemahkan. Saya justru, mereka harus baca buku itu, gitu, dalam Bahasa Inggris sehingga nanti kalau mereka ingin mengungkapkan dalam tulisannya [tugas akhir dan jawaban ujian mata kuliah], ya silahkan kutip dari itu (Joko/FG1)

*[I think, in practice, I never give a translation assignment to the students. The students have to read the books in English, so that when they want to express their understanding in their writings [final project report and content course examination], they can quote from them [English textbooks]. (Joko/FG1)]*

Thus it was clear that this lecturer had high expectations for his students. This was reflected not so much in what he said, but by the fact that his response did not encompass any discussion about ways to support students' language learning. Hence, his comments seem to suggest he had limited understanding of the dual-outcomes of EMI practice (i.e., English and content skill learning).

One issue that the lecturers did see as important for EMI practice was the use of multimedia. The following lecturer emphasised the importance of this resource for teaching and learning:

Uhh kalau, apa namanya kalau dengan Bahasa Indonesia mungkin media-media atau visualisasi mungkin tidak dibutuhkan. Bahasa Inggris yang beban mahasiswanya dua kali lipat, selain mamahami materi, juga memahami bahasa mungkin, plus media-media visualisasi. (Satrio/II)

*[In Indonesian medium instruction, visual media might not be too necessary, but if it's in English, looking at the students, they learn twice, besides the materials, they need to understand the language. So the visual media are a plus (Satrio/II)]*

In general the lecturers' responses to this particular issue suggest their perception that multimedia learning materials are important for supporting the students' learning in an EMI environment. Related to the issues of pedagogical strategies and learning



materials for EMI is how students' learning is assessed and this is described in the next section.

### ***Assessment of students' learning in EMI***

With respect to the lecturers' perception about the complex matter of assessment, their responses can be placed on an axis with those who supported a focus mostly on content and others with a more balanced view who had a focus on both content and language assessment, although there was some debate how this could be achieved. For those few lecturers who supported a clear separation between content and language, with a distinct focus on the former when conducting their assessments of students' learning in EMI class, they made comments such as:

Yang jelas konsepnya seperti ini bisa ndak mereka terapkan untuk permasalahan yang ada. (Satrio/II)

*[What I want to see (in evaluating students' learning) is if they apply a concept to a given problem. (Satrio/II)]*

Kita yang bertanya dari apa yang sudah disampaikan tadi atau kita yang minta mereka memberi kesimpulan (Dina/II)

*[I would ask the points I have presented, or I ask them to give a summary of the lesson. (Dina/II)]*

It seems that implied in these comments is the notion that understanding can be demonstrated by use of L1. Another indicated that this should be the case because it was more convenient to do so:

Bagi kita yang dosen seperti ini ya lebih gampang kontennya daripada bahasanya kan karena kita bukan dosen bahasa gitu. (Satrio/FG1)

*[For the lecturer like me, it is easier to assess the content than the language because we are not the language lecturer. (Satrio/FG1)]*

Thus it appears that this lecturer deemed that assessment of the content mastery was most appropriate in Indonesian. It is important to note that this particular perception may be due to his proficiency in English, which appeared to be insufficient to do otherwise.

Among those who supported a focus both on English and content, important questions were raised by some participants about how this practice should be enacted:

Saya pikir assessmentnya, metodenya mungkin tidak jauh berbeda sih...Hanya saja, apakah nanti dipersyaratkan kemampuan Bahasa Inggrisnya juga dinilai apa ndak, itu lain persoalannya, kalau memang itu dinilai, mungkin agak berbeda ya. Kemampuan Bahasa Inggris apa dinilai apa tidak itu lain persoalannya. (Satrio/II)

*[I think the assessment, the method wouldn't be too far different...But the problem is whether their English skill should be required to assess it or not, that's what is different. If it is required, then the method needs to be different. (Satrio/II)]*

There were other lecturers who claimed that they were able to achieve a joint focus, with assessments conducted in English:

I: Bagaimana cara Bu Tari mengases, mengukur pencapaian yang sudah mereka dapat?

Tari: Kalau yang lalu-lalu, saya itu kasih ujian itu dalam Bahasa Inggris

I: hmm

Tari: Nah, jadi

I: Itu diadopsi?

Tari: Maksudnya?

I: Maksudnya dari mana dapat soalnya? Apakah kita buat sendiri?

Tari: Ooo, buat sendiri. Kalaupun ada kelas Bahasa Indonesia, ya terpaksa diterjemahkan ke Bahasa Inggris. (II)

*[I: How would you assess what they have achieved during the learning?*

*Tari: Formerly, I gave them the test in English*

*I: hmm*

*Tari: so*

*I: Was it adapted? Where was it from? I mean where did the examination derive from? Did you make it up yourself?*

*Tari: Uhuhh I made it up myself. When the available examination is in Indonesian, I translated it into English (II)]*

Yet they described how they used English for assessing students' learning because that was a requirement of the course they taught:

I: Bagaimana cara Bu Tari mengases, mengukur pencapaian yang sudah mereka dapat?

Tari: Kalau yang lalu-lalu, saya itu kasih ujian itu dalam Bahasa Inggris.... Kalaupun ada kelas Bahasa Indonesia, ya terpaksa diterjemahkan ke Bahasa Inggris. Tujuannya ya supaya ini aja mereka get used with konteksnya (II)

*[I: How would you assess what they have achieved during the learning?*

*Tari: Previously, I gave them the test in English... When the available examination is in Indonesian, I translated it into English. The purpose was in order that they will get used to the texts (II)]*

Other participants seemed to demonstrate a degree of flexibility with how they approached this issue, for example, Dina allowed the use of either Indonesia or English for this purpose:

Mahasiswa diberikan kebebasan untuk menggunakan bahasa Inggris atau bahasa Indonesia. (Dina/II)

*[And for the students, they are given freedom, they can use English or Indonesian. (Dina/II)]*

Another lecturer questioned the current practices of not privileging content knowledge, but focusing on language:

I agree with this assessment model but not 100 percent because it gives only 10 percent. If the students cannot write, cannot think, or cannot remember any material of our subject, he still can get B (Susi/II)

Clearly she wanted to see content mastery sitting alongside language development, with the assessment procedures reflecting this in the way that the students are graded.

Finally, another participant believed there to be no difference between assessing students in English or in Indonesian:

I believe that there is no difference between materials in Indonesian and English sources.... I believe they're the same (Agung/II)

Thus the lecturers' views about conducting assessment of their students' learning in EMI classroom suggest a variety of understandings, reflecting a tension that exists between assessing content and language.

This apparent tension may reflect the course in which the students are enrolled. For example, one participant (the following two quotes from her) described how the assessment she conducted was different from that which usually occurred in other departments in the University because of the course she taught:

I: Besides asking them what their opinion about the lesson, is there any strategy that you encourage them to participate in the classroom?

Susi: Uhhh, like I told you before, because the QMS also provides us with the module, we have different assessment to... (II)

Using multimodal analysis, it is possible to see how this lecturer attempted to illustrate and emphasise her approach to assessing students' learning by writing on a piece of paper the elements of the assessments she deemed to be important and by providing evidence by writing down the numbers:

Susi: So 40 percent is their activity at class

.....

I: like assessment for mid semester, do you still have it?

Susi: Yes, but only 10 percent

I: ok

Susi: 10 percent is mid exam and final exam is 10 percent (II)

According to this participant, the model of assessment outlined above is a tool to increase students' participation within the EMI learning process. The same teacher also observed that it did indeed work well in this regard with the students showing greater willingness to express their ideas and thoughts during classroom learning.

As this particular means of assessment was raised by one lecturer, it was further explored quantitatively in section 5.2. Further, this view appeared to be held by a number of participants by linking this assessment model with the pedagogy should be adopted within EMI. For instance, another lecturer described it this way:

Kalau di E-ship itu, kita sebagai fasilitator itu, tidak langsung memberi materi, tetapi open discussion. Cuman biasanya open discussion itu suka kebablasan juga, nah kitanya sebagai fasilitator itu untuk mengumpulkannya lagi. Nanti itu muncul, “Bu, berdasarkan pengalaman saya itu, begini ini loh Bu, kalau pencucian mobil.” nahhh, “Oh kamu ini?” “Oh iya, Bu saya dari SMA atau SMP itu sudah membantu Bapak saya mengelola pencucian mobil. Keluarlah cerita. (Dina/II)

*[So, in E-ship, as the facilitator, I did not give them the materials directly, but I started with discussion. But sometimes the discussion could be over the learning objectives, as the facilitator I directed the discussion of the topic. So they might come up with the idea ‘Ma’am based on my experience, the car washing business is like this.’ Then I respond ‘so you’re...’ Then a student said that he has helped his father with his car washing business since his high school days. Then they would start sharing (Dina/II)]*

The same lecturer also described how similar practices contributed to effective teaching:

Dina: Kalau di Entrepreneurship ini kan, metode pembelajarannya itu, centre nya itu pada student itu

M: Contohnya?

Dina: Ruangnya saja tidak seperti ini, kursi-kursi begini, tapi dia buat sirkel

M: Oh gitu

Dina: Buat sirkel, terus, saya itu hanya sebagai fasilitator

M: Hmm

Dina: Jadi, tidak ada yang si dosen di depan, si dosennya yang power lebih, tapi saling sharing, take and give, jadi bisa saja yang mahasiswa itu yang lebih paham terhadap entrepreneurship dan dia itu bisa mensharingkan ke dosen dan teman-temannya. (II)

*[Dina: In Entrepreneurship, the centre is in students, so I: For example?*

*Dina: The classroom setting is not like these chairs, but it is a circle.*

*I: I see*

*Dina: We make a circle; I am only a facilitator*

*I: Hmm*

*Dina: So, there is no lecturer at the front of the class, less power rest with the lecturer, but it is sharing, taking and giving. So it is possible that the students understand more about Entrepreneurship and they can share it with their lecturer and peers. (II)]*

Again using evidence based on multimodal analysis, the lecturer was seen pointing - illustrating how the classroom where the interviews were conducted is a setting for traditional classroom learning, which contrasts to the approach EMI should adopt.

It is important to note that this type of effective EMI teaching was derived from the training these participants received from overseas institutions. Further the QMS course where such practices occurred was introduced into the University because of funding provided by the same overseas institution which supported both its curriculum development and provision of course materials, all of which were in English. Hence, this type of support and training appears to provide lecturers with insights about EMI that are not necessarily available to others who may have only experienced EMI within the context of Pondasi University and, in fact, the majority of the lecturers lacked this experience. One of the participants actually cautioned that this is the model of training and implementation that should be adopted if EMI is to be effective:

Kalau saya melihatnya apa yg dilakukan sekarang itu lebih ke cikal bakal dari uuhhh sebuah apa ya, uhh sebuah uhhh kelas bilingual tapi ada baiknya jika lembaga yang melakukan itu, lakukanlah secara terstruktur. Jadi sebagaimana yang di, misalnya di apa? Fakultas Ekonomi, mereka sudah klaim bahwa itu adalah kelas bilingual. Dengan management bilingual, yang disupport penuh oleh lembaga. Jadi tidak seperti sekarang, yang terjadi adalah manajemen nya bukan bilingual. (Hidayat/FG5)

*[I view this, the thing is being practised at the moment, as the forerunner of the bilingual class, but it'd be better that the institution implements this in a structured way. In the way that the Economics Department (at the neighbour university) does, they can claim it as the bilingual class. From the management of the bilingual class it is supported fully by the institution. So, it is not like this at the current moment (at Pondasi University), the management is not adequately supporting the bilingual program. (Hidayat/FG5)]*

Thus lecturers' perspectives about EMI suggest a range of views about how it should be implemented and assessed within the classroom. In addition the teachers gave their views about the challenges of EMI and these are described more fully in the following section.

### 5.1.2 The challenges of EMI practice

The lecturers raised several concerns about the challenges of implementing EMI at the University, which include the students' low motivation, both students' and lecturers' limited English proficiency, lecturers' lack of EMI teaching skills, and low staffing levels amongst the English language lectures (see Figure 7).

#### *Low motivation*

A number of lecturers, especially those with greater English proficiency and longer teaching experience, expressed the view that low student motivation was one of the main challenges when attempting to implement EMI in the University:

... kurang antusias dalam Bahasa Indonesia, apalagi dalam bahasa ...Bahasa Inggris. Jadi memang, uuhhh kalau menurut saya sih motivasi mereka yang ini, yang apa. (Lina/FG1)

[... *They lack enthusiasm in Indonesian, even more if the course is in English. So, in my opinion, their motivation, which is to respond the course content, is low.* (Lina/FG1)]

Cuman kadang-kadang, apa namanya uhh ketika kita membawa materi yang sedikit ...berbahasa Inggris, kadang-kadang ... mereka, 'udahlah ada yang bahasa Indonesianya ndak, Pak?' Makanya kadang-kadang sering saya membayangkan kalau misalnya saya disuruh mengajarkan uhh mata kuliah saya dalam bhs Inggris, kalau saya ngomong dalam Bahasa Inggris kayaknya saya hanya ngomong sendiri, gitu. (Satrio/FG1)

[*But sometimes, uhhh when I present the materials which are a bit in English .... Sometimes the students... react by saying, 'Is there an Indonesian version, Sir? So I imagine if I am asked to teach my course in English, if I speak in English it seems that I will only be speaking to myself.* (Satrio/FG1)]

Even though both of the above lecturers raised the issue of students' low motivation, the teacher in the first extract seemed to be speaking about a general lack of learning motivation, not specifically connected to learning English or even EMI. The second appeared to focus on students' attitude towards English-medium instruction. Further,

this particular stance appears to be related to the students' limited English skills (which is described in more detail in the following section).

A common theme to emerge from the data, particularly from those lecturers with greater English proficiency and longer teaching experience, was with regard to their expectations for their students, which tended to be higher than the other lecturers. In general, for this group it seemed that they had a more negative perception of their students' ability to use English when EMI is practiced:

Saya mungkin akan merasa sedikit frustrasi karena komunikasi dua arah yang saya harapkan mungkin tidak dapat tercapai. Tapi memiliki harapan bahwa jika kita mampu menciptakan lingkungan yang lebih mendukung, keadaan tersebut dapat lebih baik. (Lina/FG1)

*[I feel a bit frustrated because the two-way communication I had hoped for cannot be achieved. However, if we can establish a supportive atmosphere, the conditions may be better. (Lina/FG1)]*

The low level of English proficiency of the students and its impact on EMI is discussed further in the next section.

### ***English skills***

Most lecturers indicated that they believed that their students' English proficiency would present a challenge for implementing EMI practice:

... Tak ada yang tahu kan? Itu masalahnya, Kalau saya fifty-fifty, fifty persen maksud saya, sedikit juga dia tahu, jadi nurut saya, menggunakan Bahasa Indonesia seratus persen. (Karyono/FG3)

*[...because there is no student who can understand it. That is the problem.... I mean if I practice fifty percent, they will know a little. So in my opinion it is better to do so that using 100 percent Indonesian. (Karyono/FG3)]*

*[Well, if I require them (to use English), I am afraid the students who have limited English, they will be quiet during the lesson. (Dina/II)]*



The impact of the students' level of English proficiency is explained in the following dialogue:

Bento: Soalnya kalau yang bersangkutan tidak memiliki kemampuan yang cukup baik di Bahasa Inggris, justru hal ini akan menjadi penghambat untuk transfer ilmu tersebut. Karena apa? Karena belajarnya kan dua kali: yang pertama dia mencer... mencoba untuk mencerna ilmu yang disampaikan melalui bahasa yang dia ga familiar

M: Hmm

Bento: Ya kan, habis itu baru pencernaan materinya, jadi percepatan untuk menangkap substansi materi itu akan lebih...

Ratna: Lebih lambat

Bento: Lebih lambat karena energy digunakan lebih banyak (FG4)

*[Bento: If the students do not have such capability in English, this becomes the obstacle for the knowledge transfer. Why? Because learning takes places two times. The students try to discern the knowledge in the language they are not familiar with.*

*M: Hmm*

*Bento: Is that right? And then, they come to the understanding of the materials. So the speed to grasp the materials will be...*

*Ratna: Much slower*

*Bento: Much slower because it takes more energy (FG4)]*

That is, these lecturers indicated that for students with limited English proficiency their overall learning progress is reduced.

In addition, it was not only the students who were described as having English skills at a level too low for EMI, some lecturers also admitted their own limited English proficiency would be a challenge in practising EMI:

Mungkin sudah kita ketahui bersama ya Mba ya seperti saya, orang-orang lama misalnya, seperti itu Mba ya, kemampuan bhs Inggrisnya kan rendah, Mba (Smiling) Jadi apa memungkinkan? Kita mengajar uhh dalam bahasa Inggris sementara ya kemampuan kita rata-rata lah? Tapi saya pikir tidak ada salahnya misalnya kita dipersiapkan dalam waktu setahun, gitu. Kita dipersiapkan dulu, diberi pelatihan apa begini, ya. (Kartika/FG3)

*[Maybe as we know, senior lecturers including me, our English skill is low (Smiling). So is it possible we teach our courses in English while our English is about average? But I don't think it is wrong (to try). For example, we could prepare for a year, and if training is provided. (Kartika/FG3)]*

Another described it this way:

Saya masih akan mempertimbangkannya karena saya merasa kemampuan Bahasa Inggris saya masih terbatas dan jika memang diperbolehkan mungkin saya akan lebih dominan masih menggunakan Bahasa Indonesia ketimbang Bahasa Inggris - 80% Bahasa Indonesia dan 20 % Bahasa Inggris. (Karina/FG4)

*[I still consider that because my English is limited, if I am allowed to I might still use Indonesian predominantly - 80% Indonesian and 20 % English. (Karina/FG4)]*

This self-evaluation was similar to the negative feelings expressed by many of the teaching staff about the implementation of EMI in the University, for example:

Kalau bisa pandangan saya ya, saya tadi juga agak pesimis. Ya kalau misalnya ada komitmen di semua pihak, saya pikir ya tidak masalah, Mbak.... misalnya kemampuan dalam Bahasa Inggrislah misalnya, baik itu staf pengajar, mahasiswa ya Mbak ya. ....Saya pikir juga selain, uhh kita mahasiswanya gitu Mbak ya, staffnya gitu Mbak ya, jadi mungkin juga perlu komitmen lembaga. (Kartika/FG3)

*[In my opinion, this is my opinion, I am somewhat pessimistic. If there is commitment from all aspects, I think it won't be a problem. ...For example, if the students and the staff develop sufficient English. ... Therefore, I think we need to prepare the students and the staff. There needs to be a commitment from the institution. (Kartika/FG3)]*

The idea that support from the institution is necessary was another regular theme to emerge from the participants responses – this perception is described in detail later in Section 5.1.4. This relates to institutional support for developing English proficiency, but also for developing teaching skills, which is described next.

### ***EMI Teaching skills***

Apart from their lack of English proficiency, the lecturers were also concerned about their limited EMI teaching skills. One lecturer expressed it in this way:

M: Yang paling mendasar alasan mengapa belum siap itu apakah karena memang....

Syafril: Karena kemampuannya memang ga ada (FG3)

[*M: So what is the basic reason you don't feel ready yet?*

*Syafril: Because I don't have the capability to do that (FG3)]*

To overcome this, some staff described how training was necessary:

Jadi mungkin harus ada pendampingan sebelumnya mungkin ada kayak ntah satu tahun mesti soalnya kan ngajar dalam Bahasa Inggris kan beda sama Bahasa Indonesia yang sehari-hari mau ngomong apa aja bisa bebas kan. (Tati/FG2)

[*So, there might need to be preparation beforehand. It can be one-year of training. Teaching our subject in English is different from teaching it in Indonesian. Using Indonesian, we are able to express anything (Tati/FG2)]*

Kemungkinan training mungkin perlu juga ya karena kita bukan uhh bukan orang yang memang mendalami bidang Bahasa Inggris, tapi... jadi metode pengajaran segala macam juga tidak terlalu kita kuasai, (Satrio/FG1)

[*Training might be needed because we are not experts of English, so I haven't yet mastered the teaching method (Satrio/FG1)]*

Akan menjadi sebuah tantangan tersendiri jika diminta mengajar kelas bilingual, walaupun secara pribadi berat tapi tetap akan dilaksanakan. Tentu saya harus dibekali dengan pelatihan yang cukup memadai terutama dari segi metodologinya. (Joko/FG1)

[*It will be a challenge for me for certain if I am asked to teach the bilingual class and even though personally I feel it is hard I will do it. Of course, I also need to be equipped with adequate training in that particular teaching method. (Joko/FG1)]*

It is worth noting that even those lecturers with higher English proficiency still expected that implementing EMI practices would be challenging and they too felt the need for training programs in relation to developing their teaching skills.

### *Staffing levels*

Staffing levels were an issue that emerged when the lecturers were asked their opinion about the possibility of collaboration between the content and language lecturers when EMI is implemented, for instance:

Anwar: Mungkin mau tapi dosen mau tapi begitu banyak perbandingan antara dosen yang bukan Bahasa Inggris dan berbahasa Inggris sih, waktunya dosen Bahasa Inggris bisa kewalahan.

Bento: Dosen Bahasa Inggris jumlahnya harus sama dengan

Anwar: Iya

Bento: Dosen konten, ya minimal satu kelas itu satu dosen Bahasa Inggris, dosen apa namanya..?

R: Iya, itu tidak mungkin ya?

Anwar: Iya nggak mungkin,

Bento: Tapi kan jumlah dosen Bahasa Inggris harus sama jumlah dosen konten

Ratna: Harus sama dengan jumlah kelas (FG4)

*[Anwar: They might be willing (to collaborate) but the difference between the number of language and non-language lecturers is very large. The language lecturers will be overwhelmed*

*Bento: The number of the language lecturers would need to be similar to...*

*Anwar: Yes*

*Bento: the content lecturers, at least there needs to be one language lecturer*

*R: Ok, isn't that possible?*

*Anwar: No, it is not possible*

*Bento: As the number of language lecturers should be similar to the number of content lecturers*

*Ratna: It must be similar to the number of classes (FG4)]*

The low level of staff available at the University for EMI implementation was also described by another lecturer in a different group:

Saya kira uhh kalau model seperti itu bagus juga, cuman memang dari segi kondisi Politeknik agak sulit, Pertama uhhh ya kita tahu secara jumlah staff tidaklah terlalu banyak ya,

artinya untuk satu kelas ditanggung dua staff itu sangat sulit, sekarang saja dengan kondisi sekarang sangat sulit. (Satrio/FG1)

*[I think the model is good, but our (Polytechnic) condition makes it a bit difficult. Firstly, the number of teaching staff is limited. It means that there are only two lecturers in a classroom. At the moment it is very difficult. (Satrio/FG1)]*

The lecturers' views on the collaboration between the language and content lecturers do, in fact, reflect an "adjunct model" of EMI. This is described in more detail in Section 5.1.4.

### **5.1.3 The benefits of EMI practice**

Despite the concerns, as outlined above, the lecturers also outlined the various opportunities and benefits related to the implementation of EMI at the institution.

#### ***Students' improved English skills***

A key benefit from EMI practice, according to many of the participants is that it could lead to improvement in the students' English. However, they described this in terms of how it would increase their familiarity with English and their confidence when interacting in English:

Dengan adanya kelas bilingual ini jadi media mereka gitu loh, berani kayak ala bisa karena biasa. (Dina/FG2)

*[Through bilingual classes, this becomes the medium for the, they are able because they get used to it (English). (Dina/FG2)]*

Ya, soalnya mungkin kalau misalnya dari nilai, mungkin nggak, secara nilai dari IPnya itu mungkin ga kesana ya, tapi lebih kepedean dia dalam mengucapkan Bahasa Inggris, terus kemudian, kedepannya juga misalnya dia bisa. Apalagi kan visi Pondasi University kan go international kan? (Angga/FG2)

*[Yes, it might not be in their academic grade, but in their confidence in speaking English. And then in the future, they can communicate in English, contributing in particular to Pondasi University's vision of having international recognition (Angga/FG2)]*

Somewhat surprisingly only a small number of lecturers suggested that the outcome of EMI teaching could be the improvement of students' English proficiency. This may be a result of their lack of experience with the practice of EMI. This is particularly apparent when contrasted with the perceptions of those who were experienced as they tended to indicate EMI does lead to improved English skills, for example Santi described it this way:

Ternyata, kemampuan bahasa Inggrisnya kan terbukti, Bapak itu bilang "oh diploma 3 ternyata juga bisa ya." Saya bilang, "Bisa Pak, karena itu ada kelasnya jadi uhhh memang setiap tahun kita lakukan perbaikan-perbaikan." (Santi/FG1)

*[So, as the English could be improved, the assessor said, "Oh diploma students also could communicate in English." Then I said to him that it's possible as very year we do get some improvement (Santi/FG1)]*

However, it should also be noted that the introduction of EMI at this University is only at a preliminary stage which may, in part, explain the perception of the teachers.

### ***Student's increased learning motivation***

Experience with EMI teaching also led to different responses with regard to motivation, with those who have experience describing how it does lead to an increase:

Susi: Jadi kelas bilingual ini jadi ditiadakan Bu karena berdasarkan pengalaman yang lalu kelas bilingual itu nilainya tinggi, gap nya juga,

Santi: Jauh Bu

Susi: Kelas A ini IPKnya tingi-tinggi, kumlaude itu rata-rata dari kelas A, karena memang tinggi dan atmosfir yang persaingannya tinggi jadi jauh diatas yang dikelas yang lain, IPK pun yang paling rendah dikelas itu, kalau dibandingkan dengan kelas yang lain, jauh lebih tinggi dari kelas lain

.....

R: Sebentar, Kalau Bu Erni atau Bapak (Agung) ada yang mau bertanya? Silahkan, siapa tahu kan? Sharing

Erni: Kasusnya sama

Agung: Apa hubungan korelasi nilai itu dengan bahasa Inggris?

Susi: Memang tidak ada korelasinya hanya saja anak di kelas A itu terbiasa bersaing,

Santi: Di kelas A itu

Susi: Di kelas A itu jadi terbiasa bersaing karena apa? Karena di kelas itu koq lebih tahu sesuatu, jadi yang lainnya berpikir tidak mau kalah, jadi belajar hal sama jadinya begitu dosennya memberi materi mereka semuanya, (FG5)

*[Susi: Ma'am, based on my experience, the grades of the bilingual class students are higher*

*Santi: So much, Ma'am*

*Susi: if compared to the other three classes. Most of the class A students had a high academic cumulative grade and the competitive environment was clearly seen, more competitive than in the other classes. The lowest academic grade in that particular class, when compared to the other classes was so much higher. The lowest in that class!*

.....

*R: Excuse me, Wait a minute, please? Mrs. Erni and Mr. Agung, if there aren't any more questions just go ahead.*

*Erni: The case was similar to mine*

*Agung: What is the relation between the academic grade of the course and English skill?*

*Susi: Indeed, there's no correlation, but the students in class A were used to competing.*

*Santi: In class A*

*Susi: They were used to competing, why? It's because when one student knew something, the others did not want to be left behind, they would learn that. So, when the lecturer presented the lesson... (FG5)]*

Thus it seems that the students' motivation was improved by 'competing' in the EMI learning environment.

Another lecturer claimed that student motivation was driven by the students' interest:

Jadi itu justru yang interest memang anak-anak yang punya motivasi. (Tari/FG5)

*[So...The students who were interested in English were the ones with high motivation. (Tari/FG5)]*

This particular perspective was confirmed by another lecturer who had noticed increased motivation from students in the pilot bilingual program class, even though she does not practise EMI. She reported that what some students said regarding their experience in an EMI class, had contributed to their improved motivation for learning:

‘Dulu Bu, dia bilang kamek kalau mau belajar, saya kalau ndak masuk sehari jak, saya kayak ketinggalan apa gitu. Jadi, datang langsung “eeh kemarin kita belajar apa?” (Karina/FG4)

*[‘Ma’am, when I studied (in a bilingual class), when I missed a class for a day, I felt I was falling behind. So when I went to the class the following day, I would ask my classmates, “What did we study yesterday?” (Karina/FG4)]*

### ***Graduate employability***

In addition to their views on the skill-related benefits from EMI practice, some lecturers also suggested a future advantage for the University graduates of improving their English skills and, in particular, doing this through the practice of EMI. This is particularly important given the projected impact of global competition on graduates’ employability and the anticipated effect of Indonesia entering the ASEAN Economic Community in 2015.

Tapi kan nanti yang 2015 itu sudah bebas tenaga kerja dari mana mana masuknya, saya rasa. (Ratna/FG4)

*[Also in 2015 it will be free job market era where all employees can come in from everywhere, I think (Ratna/FG4)]*

Ini perlu maju, karena semakin lama nanti semakin global Bu, Targetnya 2015 - 2020 orang sudah keluar negeri. (Karyono/FG3)

*[We need to move forward. It is going global. In 2015 - 2020, people are free to go abroad. (Karyono/FG3)]*

According to this lecturer, because globally English is the lingua franca, future graduates need to develop their proficiency in this language. In turn, this needs to be reflected in the approaches used at the university:

Kalau sudah bertaraf internasional mau nggak mau, paling tidak atmosfirnya sudah ada nuansa... nah salah satunya itu sudah ada Inggris. (Santi/FG5)

*[If this university is to be at an international level, at least the atmosphere should be nuanced with the language, English. (Santi/FG/5)]*



Yang jelas saya memandang gini, kalau dia bisa Bahasa Inggris, itu dia nilai lebih buat dia, buat siapapun gitu, itu nilai lebih, artinya peluang pasar dia tidak hanya perusahaan local, tapi bisa menuju perusahaan asing. (Syafil/FG3)

*[So I view it like this, whoever can communicate in English, it is extra value for him/her. If s/he has an extra value, s/he has more potential to work not only in the local industries, but also in foreign companies. (Syafil/FG3)]*

It was not only the need for English with regard to future employment, the general utility of English was also articulated by some lecturers, for example:

Profesi yang dihadapi oleh mahasiswa nanti kelak saat mereka selesai, mereka akan sangat terpapar dengan uhhh apa.., terminologi-terminologi asing... Jadi dari sini sejak awal mulai dimasukkan unsur-unsur dan terminology yang terkait dengan akuntansi khususnya, yang dalam Bahasa Inggris, (Hidayat/FG5)

*[Later when the students complete their study, they will be exposed to foreign language terminology a lot... So I have started to include elements associated with accounting terminology in particular, using the English language. (Hidayat/FG5)]*

### ***Lecturers' improved English skills***

In addition to the benefits of EMI practice for the development of the students' English language proficiency, the lecturers also perceived that they would gain advantages from it. When asked about their feelings related to practising EMI, many showed a positive attitude and described how they thought EMI practice might also improve their own English:

...juga melatih dalam percakapan menggunakan Bahasa Inggris. (Angga/FG2)

*[...also to practise conversation in English. (Angga/FG2)]*

Adanya penunjang mengajar di kelas bilingual maka menjadi tantangan bagi saya dalam menguasai bahasa asing dan meningkatkan kualitas bahasa saya di dunia kerja sesuai dengan keprofesian. (Anwar/FG4)

*[The assignment to teach the bilingual class provides a challenge for me to master a foreign language and improve my language quality in the workplace in accordance with the professions. (Anwar/FG4)]*

Saya akan merasa senang dan tertantang karena bisa selalu memperbaiki bahasa Inggris saya. Ada media utk berbicara dalam Bahasa Inggris. (Dina/FG2)

*[I will feel happy and challenged because I can improve my English. There is a medium in which to speak English (Dina/FG2)]*

There was a further benefit of EMI for some lecturers – namely an improvement in their motivation for teaching:

Saya akan merasa tertantang dan senang karena sangat menarik buat saya untuk memperdalam kemampuan Bahasa Inggris yang saya miliki dan untuk menambah semangat dalam mengajar ke mahasiswa. (Tati/FG2)

*[I will feel challenged and happy because this is interesting for me to deepen my English skills I have now and this can increase my motivation in teaching the students (Tati/FG2)]*

Finally, in this regard, it does seem that most of the teaching staff members support the University's international vision and goals, which have been set for the year 2020:

Kalau kita bicara tentang persaingan, apalagi motonya Politeknik sebagai apa namanya uhhh institusi terbaik itu di 2020. (Satrio/FG1)

*[When we talk about competition, in particular the Polytechnic has a motto of becoming the best institution by 2020. (Satrio/FG1)]*

Santi: Kalau kayak saya ya saya ngajar pake Bahasa Inggris, pernah ditanya mahasiswa kenapa Ibu ngajar pake Bahasa Inggris, bla blah, saya bilang “Saudara sebagai bagian dari Politeknik, tahu nggak visi Politeknik itu apa?”

M: Hmmm

Agung: Iya

Santi: 2020 loh!

Susi: International (II)

*[Santi: When I was teaching in the classroom, I was asked by my students why I taught my course in English. Then I answered "You are as a part of this institution, do you know the vision of Politeknik?"*

*M: Hmm*

*Agung: Yes*

*Santi: It's in 2020!*

*Susi: International (II)]*

### ***Lecturers' improved teaching skills***

In addition to their English skills, the lecturers viewed EMI practice as a medium to improve their teaching skills:

Jika mengajar dalam kelas bilingual saya sangat setuju karena akan meningkatkan mutu dalam pengajaran. (Angga/FG2)

*[I agree. Teaching bilingual classes can increase the quality of the teaching (Angga/FG2)]*

Jadi, kalau saya sendiri sih kelas seperti ini tentu akan sangat memacu, apa namanya buat saya sendiri untuk mengembangkan Bahasa Inggris ... dan untuk mengembangkan metode-metode pembelajaran itu sendiri (Satrio/II)

*[In my personal opinion, this kind of class will be stimulating, as this can improve my English skill.... and also improve my teaching methods (Satrio/II)]*

The positive perception of EMI practice appeared to be based on the belief that its adoption resulted in the development of additional teaching approaches:

Memang tadi karena saya berpikir disini yang saya fokuskan sebagaimana mereka menguasai konsep dasarnya kemudian melakukan penghitungan-penghitungan. Tapi ketika sudah ada beban tambahan bahwa mereka juga harus menguasai bahasa kan? Saya tidak boleh hanya berfokus ke bagaimana menyampaikan ke konsep-konsep ke teknikan ini, gitu, jadi kan saya kan harus belajar menyediakan media lain (Satrio/II)

*[I am thinking that what I want to focus on is mastering the basic concepts and the Engineering-related matters... But when there is an additional goal that they need to master the language...I cannot focus only on the mastery of engineering*

*concepts... I also have to learn how to use other media (in my teaching). (Satrio/II)]*

To achieve such improvement in teaching skills there is a need for support and some respondents described what is necessary, for example:

Saya akan menerima amanat tersebut jika dibantu oleh lembaga dalam peningkatan kemampuan saya dalam menguasai bahasa internasional (Inggris) seperti diberikan kursus dan adanya kegiatan-kegiatan yang berkaitan dengan peningkatan kemampuan saya dalam berbahasa asing. (Anwar/FG4)

*[I will undertake that mandate (to teach EMI) if the institution supports me to improve my skills in mastering the international language (English). For example courses and activities regarding language skills improvement should be provided. (Anwar/FG4)]*

### ***University certification***

Apart from benefits for students and lecturers, the participants also expressed the belief that the University would gain from EMI practice. In particular, they described how it would help improve the assessment of their university for certification because a key to this is the students' English proficiency:

Tapi setiap ada assessor datang, itu tetap ditanyakan, mesti bagaimana tidaknya itu jadi setiap ada assessor, tetap ditanyakan. (Dina/FG2)

*[However, whenever the assessment comes, this matter of students' English proficiency is usually asked. So, when the assessment comes, it will be asked. (Dina/FG2)]*

Dan itu sangat mempengaruhi akreditasi loh. Bapak Arifnya lihat kurikulum Bu ya, "Oh ini AB uhh lima semester bahasa Inggrisnya ya, Inggris 1 sampai semester 5." Trus dia mau buktikan kan, dikumpulkan semua mahasiswanya, nah kebenaran yang dia apa disampel itu anak yang bukan kelas bilingual, yang reguler hancurlah Bahasa Inggris. Jadi begitu dia datang lagi ke tim akreditasi, dia agak kecewalah ya "Bu, ini gimana, katanya di AB ini kurikulumnya satu sampai lima itu Bahasa Inggris, ada basic, intermediate sampai ada segala macam, ada Inggris korespondence dan segala macam ada semua tapi koq tadi waktu saya tanya ga ada yang bisa. (Santi/FG5)

*[This has a big impact on the certification process. Once it happened in our department that Mr. Arif came to assess our program. He read our curriculum, saying “In your department (AB) you have the English course for five semesters, English from semester one to semester five.” Then he wanted proof of this, so the students were selected (to speak to him). Unfortunately he chose the students from non-bilingual, regular class, of course their English was messy. He looked disappointed, and came again to us, saying, “Ma’am, what is this, you said you have English courses for five semesters, Basic, Intermediate, and etc, but when I asked them, nobody could communicate in English...” (Santi/FG5)]*

Thus lecturers’ perception of the benefits of EMI reflects the benefits for them, their students, and the University as a whole. However, a number also indicated a need to have support in order for EMI to be successfully implemented.

#### **5.1.4 Support needed for implementing EMI**

The lecturers’ responses about EMI practice at the University include a number of critical issues regarding the support needed for its implementation. The participants indicated that such support was necessary for both the teaching staff and the students. This included training for the lecturers, the development of students’ English proficiency prior to attending EMI classes, the provision of international event programs to support EMI program, the adoption of content-based English courses, and the implementation of parallel classes.

The main issue was in relation to the provision of training to overcome the deficit in the lecturers’ own English language proficiency, for example:

M: Mungkin training kali ya atau ga perlu?

Satrio: Kemungkinan training mungkin perlu juga ya karena kita bukan uhh bukan orang yang memang mendalami bidang bahasa Inggris, tapi... jadi metode pengajaran segala macam juga tidak terlalu kita kuasai, kita hanya menggunakan uhh artinya uhh apa... karena terbiasa membaca aja, terbiasa mendengarkan orang ngomong, dan itu belum tentu sesuatu yang benar gitu. (FG1)

[M: *Maybe training, or no need?*

[Satrio: *Training might be needed because we are not experts in English, so I can't master the teaching method (in English). I only use English because I am used to reading and listening to people talk in English. This is not the right thing. (FG1)*]

It is noteworthy that this issue of lecturers' need for English training was also emphasised by lecturers with EMI teaching experience:

Intinya mungkin lebih dosen itu disupport, difasilitasi untuk meningkatkan kemampuan berbahasanya juga sebelum mereka mengajar dalam Bahasa Inggris, (Tari/FG5)

[*The main point is that the content lecturers are supported, given some facilities to improve their English before they teach in English. (Tari/FG5)*]

They also highlighted the need for training regarding the teaching methods required for EMI delivery.

Saya juga mendukung mau koq, saya misalnya 'Bu Kartika, ayo kita pelatihan dulu misalnya 6 bulan untuk menyiapkan kelas bilingual. (Kartika/FG3)

[*I will also support the program but only if I am invited to do 6-month training in preparation for the bilingual class, for example. (Kartika/FG3)*]

One participant provided an analogy for why this is critical, but also highlighted the duration of training required.

Syafril: misalnya kita mengadakan mesin nih, tapi kita tidak disediakan instruktur untuk mengelola mesin itu kan hancur juga mesin itu kan?

M: Iya

Syafril: Kita ndak ngerti gitu, huhh jadi memang ada proses bertahap dulu, artinya staf itu disiapkan dulu, ada pelatihan sampai satu tahun ini coba kita kejar, gitu. (FG3)

*[Syafri: For example, when we are given a new machine, but the instruction to help us to run the machine is not given. The machine will be broken, won't it?]*

*M: Hmm*

*Syafri: We don't understand, so the staff need a gradual introduction to be prepared (to do so) with training running for a year. (FG3)]*

### ***Minimum English requirement***

Concerning the students, some of the respondents articulated the need for there to be a minimum TOEFL score prior to entry into the EMI learning program. This was especially noted by those with EMI teaching experience, for example:

Kalau memang arahnya kita mau ke sana, kenapa inputnya tidak kita syaratkan untuk kelas bilingual, minimal TOEFL sekian. Jadi ini memang sudah disiapkan dari awal mereka. Tapi ini kan seleksinya ketika mereka sudah masuk, baru dipilihlah dari yang sudah masuk itu untuk kelas bilingual, gitu kan (Syafri/FG3)

*[If we want to do this, why don't we require them, for example the students must have a certain score of TOEFL, so, the preparation should be made from the beginning. (Syafri/FG3)]*

However, several lecturers did describe the difficulty in doing this and indicated how if a minimum score was set, there may be insufficient students who qualify:

Jadi kalau memang dia pake TOEFL, Haa... rata-rata TOEFL paling minimal 450, paling-paling dua orang yang saya ajar. Betol, tidak masuk kuota (Karyono/FG3)

*[So, if the TOEFL standard is used, actually the average required score is at minimum of 450 TOEFL scores which means there will be only two students that I can teach. This would not meet the quota (Karyono/FG3)]*

Tapi kalau 450 Bu, ga ada yang masuk. Soalnya rata-rata memang dibawah 400 Bu, 350 pun itu sudah syukur (Erni/FG5)

*[But if we make the standard of score of 450, there won't be a student who can be accepted. As in fact most of their scores are under 400, even 350 is a surprise (Erni/FG5)]*

### ***Bridging course***

Due to the students' low level of English proficiency, as described above, some participants suggested that a bridging course was essential for preparing students before they commence the EMI program:

Bento: Ditreatment dulu  
Karina: Matrikulasi  
Bento: Ya matrikulasi, ya mungkin butuh waktu.  
M: Dalam Bahasa Inggris ya?  
Bento: Dalam Bahasa Inggris sehingga dia sudah memiliki  
M: Dasar  
Bento: Dasar untuk bisa mencerna sehingga ketika dia masuk ke kelas tersebut, dia ga ada problem (FG4)

*[Bento: There should be a treatment first  
Karina: Matriculation  
Bento: Yes, it is matriculation, yes, it takes time.  
M: You mean in English, right?  
Bento: In English so that they have  
M: Basics  
Bento: The Basics to understand so that when they come into the class, they do not find a problem (FG4)]*

Although the participants used the word “matriculation” when clarification was sought it was confirmed that they actually meant a type of “bridging course”, as shown below:

Bento: Nah..., akan menjadi lebih baik lagi, menurut saya itu memang sebelum ada kelas bilingual, kalau memang harus diterapkan di reguler, itu ada treatment  
Karina: Test  
Bento: Treatment apa namanya kalau misalnya...?  
M: Kayak bridging course?  
Bento: huh huuh  
M: Disiapkan mahasiswa  
Bento: Ditreatment dulu (FG4)

*[Bento: So, it will be better; I think before starting the bilingual class, if this is conducted regularly, there is a treatment  
Karina: Test  
Bento: What kind of treatment is it if ....?]*



*M: Like a bridging course?*  
*Bento: Yes*  
*M: The students must be prepared.*  
*Bento: There should be a treatment first (FG4)]*

This sentiment was repeated by other participants, as shown in the following extract:

Kelas-kelas persiapan seperti itu satu tahun gitu kan?  
(Syafri/FG3)  
*[So there should be a bridging course, a one-year program*  
*(Syafri/FG3)]*

The lecturers' views on the need for this support suggest that it should be compulsory for students and lecturers to have a certain level of English proficiency prior to implementing the practice.

Also emerging from the data were other suggestions from the participants about mechanisms that might support the implementation of EMI. This includes international event programs, parallel classes, and content-based English classes. The following sections describe in further detail how these might work.

### ***International event programs***

In addition to the bridging or preparation programs, the lecturers suggested how useful it would be if the students could have access to international programs. For example, such programs include 'international academic competitions', and 'student exchange'. These programs gained most support from those lecturers who had experience with overseas study.

One of the many benefits of such programs is that they are seen to motivate the students, for instance, one lecturer said:

Saya pikir uhh yang penting juga membuka akses ke dunia yang berbahasa Inggris gitu, mungkin membuka akses itu salah satu caranya misalnya uhh yang kemarin sudah dilakukan juga, misalnya dengan kegiatan yang bersifat internasional kemarin di mesin ... Saya lihat mahasiswa jug cukup terbantu ya. Mereka ikuti ajang internasional melihat bagaimana

pentingnya Bahasa Inggris, mau tidak mau mata mereka terbuka. (Satrio/FG1)

*[I think the important thing is to open the access to the world using English. One way, for example, a few years ago there was an international event in Mechanical Engineering .... I saw the students were helped. They participated in an international event, they saw the importance of English, their eyes were opened (Satrio/FG1)]*

Another participant described it this way:

Lina: Termasuk kalau dari lembaga, saya ...mungkin kerja sama dgn luar bagaimana dengan pertukaran pelajar itu besar pengaruhnya untuk

M: Menyemangati

Lina: Memotivasi mahasiswa

.....  
Jadi mereka akhirnya merasa bahwa kelas bilingual ini cukup banyak gunanya. Kan yang susah kalau misalnya merasa kelas bilingual ini, kalau toh saya ga mau kemana-mana gitu, saya juga ga ada pentingnya, jadi kalau, tapi kalau atmosfirnya sudah diarahkan ke situ, mereka juga berpikir bahwa ini memang ada gunanya. (FG1)

*[Lina: Regarding the institution, it needs to establish cooperation with the outside such as through student exchange. This has a big impact.*

*R: It supports them*

*Lina: Yes, it motivates the students*

.....

*[Lina: With the bilingual class, the students should feel they get many benefits from it. At present they think that they won't go anywhere, so they do not feel the importance of it. However, when the atmosphere is supported in this way, they can see it has benefits. (FG1)]*

### ***Parallel classes***

With EMI there are several models of implementation. For example, some of the models described in the literature include “language-embedded content courses”, and the “adjunct model”. However, the model that seemed most favoured by the

participants in this study was “the adjunct model” of EMI practice. A key part of this involves “parallel” classes where there is collaboration between the content and language lecturers, for example:

Kalau menurut saya begini kalau untuk kelas parallel di mata kuliah inti khususnya di PTP ini, mata kuliah yang saya ajar Pengantar Teknologi Pertanian, itu menggunakan dua dosen, satu dosen bahasanya satu dosen inti... Nah jadi mungkin nanti di kelas inti ini, saya selaku dosen yang menggunakan Bahasa Indonesia. Mungkin untuk greeting, kemudian untuk conclusion itu bisa menggunakan Bahasa Inggris Itu disini si dosen mata kuliah inti...Nah disini dosen Bahasa Inggrisnya, dia sudah mulai mengajarkan Bahasa Inggrisnya yang sudah ke Teknologi Pertanian. (Dina/II)

*[In my opinion, this parallel class teaching of my course, PTP has two lecturers, one is the content lecturer and the other is the language lecturer. Before starting their teaching in the classroom, these two lecturers have had a meeting to discuss the support (needed)... So, maybe in my classroom, in the content learning, I can use some Indonesian. In the greetings and lesson summary sections I can use English... In the language lecturer's classroom, he can teach English relating to Agriculture Technology. (Diah/II)]*

I think we have to design the, design the subject so what I have taught they will also taught, almost, also in the same time, not in different time (Susi/II)

In this way the idea of “parallel class” refers to a parallel time (i.e., in the same study week) for delivering the lesson topics by both content and language lecturers:

I mean if I gave (the content) to the students before mid-semester, so my friend also has to give it, give it to them before mid-semester also, so it does not happen at a different time. (Susi/II)

Although this was the preference of the participants, it must be noted that the capacity for the University to do this this might be inhibited due to reduced staffing levels, as noted in Section 5.1.2.

### ***Content-based English course***

A number of participants described the need for a content-based English course as part of the University curriculum. That is, an approach to English teaching which includes topics of the content course delivered through English language learning. Some lecturers contributed to this theme further specifying how that the learning materials of the English course should be designed:

Mereka akan mendapatkan materi (dari dosen Bahasa Inggris) yang mensupport keteknikan, diteknik Elektro. (Tari/II)

*[So they also will get materials (from English lecturer) relating to the Engineering courses to support in the Electrical Engineering department. (Tari/II)]*

Karena untuk bidang elektronika, telekomunikasi dan informatika itu uh apa uhh untuk yang support bahasa itu ada bahasa-bahasa yang memang bahasa baku itu, jadi tidak Inggris secara umum. (Erni/FGI5)

*[As in the field of Electronics, Telecommunication, and Information study, the terms are fixed. They don't use general English terms (but specific discipline terms). (Erni/FGI5)]*

Based on their views, the English language lecturers were considered to reinforce what the students require in terms of language for their content learning and in this way the content lecturers' use of English is supported:

juga ketika si dosen inti ini juga mau mengimprove Bahasa Inggrisnya di kelas, mereka sudah tidak kaget, sudah tidak, tidak shocked, shocked culture gitu. (Dina/II)

*[And when their content lecturers use English in the classroom, the students won't feel shocked, or a kind of culture shock. (Dina/II)]*

Thus the lecturers made it clear that it was not sufficient for the English lecturers to simply teach General English, but that they also need to be able to support their students with the type of language needed within the discipline area, for example:

Nah disini dosen Bahasa Inggrisnya, dia sudah mulai mengajarkan Bahasa Inggrisnya yang sudah ke Teknologi Pertanian. Nah jadi mahasiswa itu tidak hanya

mendapatkan General English tetapi juga sudah berbau-bau ke Teknologi Pertanian. (Dina/II)

*[In the language lecturer's classroom, he can teach English relating to Agriculture Technology. So the students won't get only General English, but Agricultural English. So (they are prepared) when they read international journals. (Dina/II)]*

In this way, a content-based English teaching approach may work to enhance the collaborative effort of both the content and language specialists when practicing EMI.

There were various suggestions about how this collaboration might be achieved. For instance, some discipline lecturers suggested that the English lecturers might translate the EMI learning materials:

Dosen bahasa yang seharusnya back up kita.... jadi mereka mungkin support 'oh iya, berarti kan ada bahasa-bahasa, ya bahasa-bahasa aneh yang memang harus diterjemahkan (Tari/II)

*[So, they, the language lecturers are actually the ones who support us  
..... Then, they can support us in language matters, including any language that needs translating (Tari/II)]*

The issue of joint learning material development was also suggested as a type of collaboration that could contribute to successful EMI practices. In this vein, there was a variety of ideas about the types of EMI learning materials needed:

Jadi intinya kayaknya itu ini apa, memang kolaborasi, jadi mungkin pertama dari dosen mata kuliah memberikan 'ini loh referensi atau ini silabus yang akan kita gunakan jadi terlihat kan distu sub-sub pembahasannya seperti apa gitu. Nah kemudian, ya mungkin kalau misalnya bisa lebih terbuka 'ini materi yang akan kita sampaikan seperti ini di minggu pertama, nah terus mereka mungkin bisa support, oh iya berarti kana da ya bahasa-bahasa aneh itu yang harus diterjemahkan, gitu. (Tari/II)

*[So the main point is the collaboration. Firstly, the content lecturer decides which references and syllabus are to be used for the course. So sub-topics can be seen*

*in there. Then, if possible, I can show them the learning materials I want to present to the class in the first week. Then, they can provide support in language matters, including any language that needs translating. (Tari/II)]*

Others suggested that the English lecturers' role has a more specific purpose, for example:

Dan dosen Bahasa Inggrisnya juga mengajar itu tidak seperti mengajar kayak memecah air di lautan. Ada tujuannya sekarang kan? Jadi yang ngajar di PTP, eh yang TPHP, di AB, di AK mungkin beda. (Dina/II)

*[And the language lecturer's teaching has a purpose. The learning has a purpose now.... So the language teacher who teaches in PTP, Accounting, and Business Administration has clear learning goals. (Dina/II)].*

#### **5.1.5 Implications for the implementation of EMI**

According to the participants there are a number of implications for the University's administration if EMI practice is to be successfully implemented. The first relates to the need to increase the number of hours for English:

Kalau hanya mengandalkan dari proses bilingual itu, mungkin kalau memang dosennya memang belum siap, dalam Bahasa Inggrisnya, ini yang ketinggalan nih. Tapi kalau dia juga jam untuk khusus Bahasa Inggrisnya sendiri dia juga ada ...saya kira mungkin proses akan lebih cepat, gitu. (Anang/FG2)

*[If, we only depend on the bilingual class, the lecturers might not be ready, but if the hours of the English course are increased, I think the process will be faster (Anang/FG2)]*

It was also highlighted that English instruction needed to be done regularly if success was to be achieved, which has considerable implications for timetabling at the institution:

Sepertinya kalau posisi di jurusan kami, seperti itu, jadi ada sebagian dosen yang memperkuat Inggrisnya, nah dosen lain yang memperkuat di konten. Karena begini uhh disetiap semester itu ada Bahasa Inggrisnya Bu. (Syafri/FG3)

*[It seems to me, in our department that some lecturers support the language and others support the content. This is done by having an English course every semester. (Syafri/FG3)]*

At the same time, it was suggested, particularly by those with EMI teaching experience, that the introduction of EMI can be overwhelming so they felt they needed to have less teaching hours:

Tari: Ini sebenarnya seperti yang Ibu Santi bilang, itu motivasinya dari dosennya sendiri.....Semua dari keinginan kita. Jadi walaupun selama ini nggak disupport, ya kita menjalankan sendiri. Misalnya, seperti apa, job sheet itu, kita translate, kita print out lalu kita fotokopikan sendiri untuk mereka. Nah, Cuma supportnya itu tidak hanya, hanya dalam bentuk artinya materi,

R: Iya

Tari: Tapi juga keleluasaan waktu si dosen ini mengembangkan diri. Kan karena mungkin di beberapa prodi kita punya jam mengajar uhh padat, jadi kapan lagi mau uhhh? (FG5)

*[Tari: As Mrs. Santi said that the motivation comes from the lecturers....This comes from our willingness. So, even though we were not supported during the time, we did it by ourselves. For example, we translated the job sheet; we had it copied for the students. The support is not only in the form of material.*

*R: Yes*

*Tari: But we need some extra time to upgrade ourselves. As in some departments, the lecturers get extra time for teaching, so when can the lecturers...? (FG5)]*

Another key implication suggested by some participants is the need to revise the current curriculum.

Bisa jadi revisi kurikulumnya untuk mendukung visi misi Pondasi University yang 2020. (Tati/FG2)

*[Revising our curriculum is necessary to support the vision and mission of Pondasi University for the year of 2020. (Tati/FG2)]*

Another teacher described how this should be done:

Jadi mungkin kurikulum itu sendiri harus apa namanya, diperperbaharui lagi dan pada saat pembaharuan itulah dosen-dosen diundang berdiskusi ini materinya, misalnya ini mata kuliah say misalnya Mekanika misalnya itu topik yang dibahas itu misalnya ini kata kuncinya misalnya percepatan dan kecepatan, posisi, lintasan, percepatan, gaya, torsi, uhh itu bahasa Inggrisnya apa, harus disampaikan banyak kan? (Satrio/II)

*[So the curriculum needs to be revised. During this revision, the lecturers should be invited to discuss it. For example, in my course, Mechanics, the key terms including velocity, position, trajectory, acceleration, force and torsi need to be introduced using English terms (Satrio/II)]*

Others gave practical suggestions about where the revision might take place. For examples, Satrio suggested the increased use of multimedia as described in earlier sections (5.1.1, and 5.1.3) and Dina's suggested that the adoption of student-centred learning within EMI was important (5.1.1).

There were others who suggested structural changes, namely that EMI should be administered separately. This was articulated by one lecturer with EMI teaching experience:

Hidayat: Kalau saya melihatnya apa yang dilakukan sekarang itu lebih ke cikal bakal dari uuhhh sebuah apa ya, uhh sebuah uhhh kelas bilingual tapi ada baiknya jika lembaga yang melakukan itu, lakukanlah secara terstruktur.

M: Ok

Hidayat: Jadi sebagaimana yang di, misalnya di apa? Fakultas Ekonomi, mereka sudah klaim bahwa itu adalah kelas bilingual.

Erni: Kelas internasional

Hidayat: Dengan management bilingual, yang disupport penuh oleh lembaga. Jadi tidak seperti sekarang, yang terjadi adalah manajemenanya bukan bilingual,

M: Iya

Hidayat: Artinya kaprodinya yang harus yang kaprodi itu, harus apa ya memenej kelas yang bilingual dan kelas yang non bilingual yang seharusnya dengan perlakuan yang berbeda.

....

Hidayat: Walaupun ideal yang, seperti prodi yang prodi tersendiri, ada jurusan tersendiri yang memang sejak awal dipersiapkan untuk kelas bilingual, seperti yang saya bilang tadi kelas, prodi, prodi Pariwisata



Santi: Iya

Hidayat: Artinya memang secara awal nanti akan diklaim sebagai kelas dengan...

Santi: Kemampuan Bahasa Inggrisnya ya

Hidayat: Bahasa Inggris tadi dengan terstruktur tadi, lengkap

Agung: Artinya prodi baru ya?

Hidayat: Ya, karena managementnya ga bisa diganggu menurut pengalaman kami managementnya ga bisa digabung.  
(FG5)

*[Hidayat: I view this, the thing is being practiced at the moment, as the the forerunner of the bilingual class, but it'd be better that the institution implements this in a structured way*

*M: Alright*

*Hidayat: As with what the Economics Department (at the neighbour university) does, they can claim it as the bilingual class*

*Erni: The international class*

*Hidayat: The management of the bilingual class is supported fully by that institution. So, it is not like here at the current moment, the management is not supporting the bilingual program*

*M: Right*

*Hidayat: It means that the Department head has to manage the bilingual and non-bilingual programs, which should be treated in differently.*

....

*Hidayat: It would be ideal if there was a separate department head, a separate department which is prepared from the beginning. For example, it can be a Department of Tourism*

*Santi: Yes, that's right*

*Hidayat: That at the beginning it will be claimed as the class of...*

*Santi: with the English skills*

*Hidayat: Yes, with the English skill and it's structured*

*Agung: It means establishing a new study program*

*Hidayat: Yes, that right as the management cannot be mixed*

(FG5)]

### **5.1.6 Summary of the findings of the Phase One study**

This chapter began with a discussion of terms that can be used for EMI, namely “bilingual classes” and “international classes”. Next, a description was provided of the key contributions of EMI and also ways it can be introduced and practiced. The lecturers articulated the need for graduates to have high levels of English language competency for the global job market. Next they described how EMI can potentially

improve their own and students' English proficiency. They also indicated how EMI could lead to their own improved English and general teaching skills. EMI also has the potential to contribute in positive ways to the University's certification. The lecturers did indicate that an adjunct model with parallel classes, where there was close collaboration between content and language lecturers, was one way EMI could be successfully employed at Pondasi University. However, it was suggested that there were a number of implications for the University in order to address the challenges that may occur with the implementation of EMI in the University. This included the need for an increase of English course hours, a review and revision of the current curriculum, and for the establishment of a separate EMI program within the University. A summary of the findings from Phase One is provided in Figure 7 below:

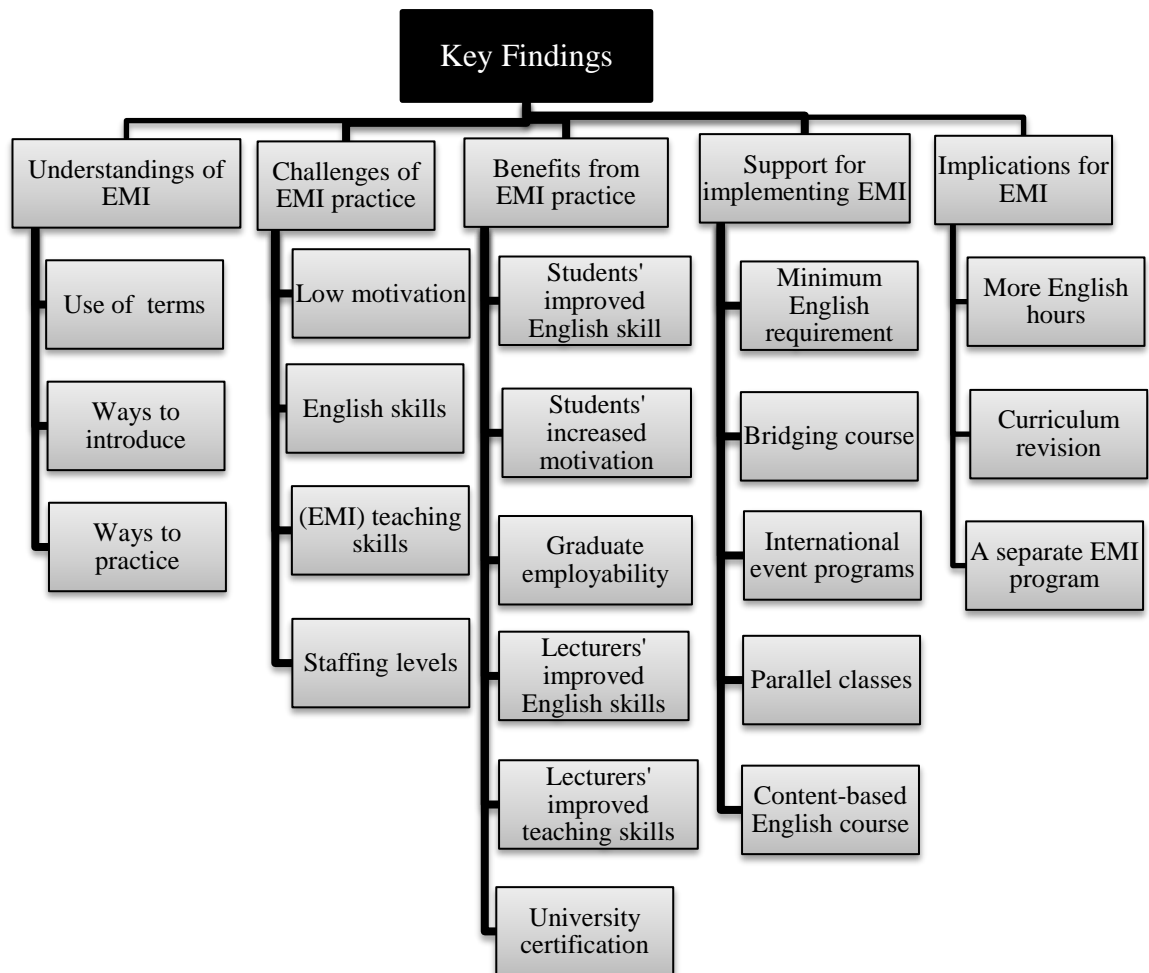


Figure 7: Lecturers' perspectives on EMI practice in Indonesian HE

## 5.2 Findings from Quantitative Phase of the Study

This section provides a description of the findings from the second phase of the study. These particular findings address Research Questions two (*How consistent are the lecturers' views on the issues of EMI across the institution?*) and three (*Do the lecturers' backgrounds affect their perception of each issue in EMI practice?*).

### 5.2.1 Lecturers' knowledge about EMI

The lecturers' responses are presented below (see Appendix 3) according to the four main topics in the EMI practice survey. The results are presented according to mean and standard deviations of the lecturers' responses and also showing the percentage agreement/disagreement of participants' for each item. As can be seen the overall the agreement of respondents is relatively high.

### ***Terms used to refer to EMI***

The results show that the terms “bilingual classes” and “international classes” were generally perceived by the lecturers to be the same thing as EMI, reflecting the perspectives of the lecturers obtained in the first phase of this study (i.e., the qualitative part of the research). Specifically, the majority of the lecturers agreed with statement (2) *EMI and bilingual classes refer to the same practice* as demonstrated by a mean score of 2.12 with 82.6% either strongly agreeing or agreeing. The low deviation (0.57) indicates only a small disparity between the lecturers’ perceptions in this regard. Statement (3) *EMI practice and international classes are the same thing* had a slightly higher mean score of 2.2 (but with only 69.8% either strongly agreeing or agreeing). The value of the standard deviation in this measurement (0.61) also shows a somewhat larger spread of responses. In this way these measures should not be considered categorical answers, but rather reflecting the continuum of perceptions. Whether or not the lecturers’ view of bilingual classes is mirrored in their responses to the questions about strategies used when practicing EMI (statements 5 – 7), is presented next.

### ***Practical issues in EMI classrooms***

Information about the lecturers’ views regarding practices and approaches used in EMI classrooms was gathered in ten statements (1, 4 – 10, and 24 – 25). Concerning the suitability of certain courses for EMI practice (statement 1: *EMI practice is suitable for the courses I teach*), the mean score of 2.04 and 85.3% either strongly agreeing or agreeing with this indicates overwhelming support for this statement, once again providing confirmation of the previous qualitative findings. It is important to note that only 3.7% of the lecturers participating in the survey taught non-core courses; therefore, this does mean that a small percentage of the lecturers from the core courses disagreed with this statement, too.

Statement 4, *EMI practice should be introduced gradually at the University* had the mean score of 1.52 with 96.3% of the lecturers either strongly agreeing or agreeing. Once again this finding provides support to that found in the qualitative phase of the study.

Concerning the issue of the language use in EMI classrooms, the findings pertaining to these particular questions are consistent with the lecturers’ view on the term

“bilingual classes” used to refer to EMI (i.e., statement 2). The results for the statements of L1 use in EMI classrooms (statements 5 through 7, *EMI practice should use both English and Indonesian languages; Indonesian (the students’ first language - L1) should be used for the purposes of translation during EMI practice; L1 should be used for the delivery of key content during EMI practice* with Ms = 1.79, 1.9, and 2, respectively and with approximately 80% of the participants either strongly agreeing or agreeing shows coherence between their answers on these statements and their views on the term used to refer to EMI practice. The statistical analysis of correlations (Table 17) also shows that the term “bilingual classes” was significantly correlated with these particular issues.

Table 17: Correlations: Issues in practical ways in the EMI classroom

			S 5	S 6	S 7	S 8	S 9
Kendall’s tau	S****2	Correlation	.442**	.304**	.230**	-.015	.340**
		Coefficient	.000	.001	.009	.861	.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)					
		N	109	109	109	109	109
	S 3	Correlation	.156	.048	.102	.084	.124
		Coefficient	.079	.585	.249	.337	.158
		Sig. (2-tailed)					
		N	109	109	109	109	109
	S 6	Correlation	.559**	1.000	.581**	-.035	.316**
		Coefficient	.000		.000	.684	.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)					
		N	109	109	109	109	109

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

\*\*\* S= Statement

As indicated in Table 17, there was a significant relationship between the term “bilingual classes” and the use of both L1 and L2 in EMI classroom ( $r = .44$ ), the use of translation in teaching ( $r = .30$ ), and sectional uses of L1 and L2 ( $r = .23$ ) (all  $ps$  (two-tailed)  $<.01$ ). Thus, these figures provide further support for the findings in the qualitative phase of the study. This was particularly the case with statement 6 where 84.4% of the respondents either strongly agreed or agreed about the practice of using translation in their teaching.

Statements 6 and 7 were designed to examine the lecturers’ understanding of different practices, namely statement 6 refers to a translation model of EMI teaching, whilst statement 7 is the practice of contextualising the use of L1 and L2 for EMI practice. For example, greetings and the lesson introduction could be in L2, whereas key lesson delivery might be in L1. Similar mean scores and SD values in both of these questions provides evidence of the lecturers’ limited familiarity with practices they might adopt when teaching EMI. This interpretation was confirmed with a strong correlation coefficient between these measures ( $r = .58$ ,  $p$  (two-tailed)  $<.01$ ).

In terms of the learning materials used in EMI classrooms, most lecturers agreed with the statement about being able to use current English text books without a need for translation into Indonesian with 66% of the lecturers either strongly agreeing or agreeing (statement 8,  $M = 2.17$ ). However, the response to the statement about a need for two versions using both languages throughout the modules and handouts showed 76.2 % of the lecturers either strongly agreed or agreed with this (statement 9,  $M = 1.95$ ). Thus there seems to be somewhat of a contradiction between these responses. Perhaps this reflects the lecturers’ belief about the students’ limited English proficiency, as indicated during the first phase of qualitative study. It is also important to note that the SD of both Items 8 and 9 (0.74; 0.73) were the highest amongst those found using this instrument. As such, this large spread of scores demonstrates the disparity of beliefs of the respondents with respect to this issue.

However, the participants’ responses regarding the issue of bilingual classes did appear to be more consistent, particularly with respect to their perception about using two languages in the EMI classroom. As indicated in Table 17, there was a positive

relationship between the term “bilingual classes” and the use of L1 and L2 learning materials in the classroom ( $r = .34, p > .01$ ) but no relationship with using English textbooks without the provision of the translation into L1 ( $r = -.015, p = .861$ ).

With regard to the issue of using multimedia learning materials for EMI practice (statement 10), the data also confirmed the findings in the first qualitative phase with a mean score of 1.52 and almost all the participants (97.1%) either strongly agreeing or agreeing with the statement about the usefulness of presenting language learning materials using multimedia.

The quantitative data about the lecturers’ views in the area of assessment of students’ learning in EMI disclosed a meaningful difference from the previous phase of the study. Most of the lecturers agreed with the statement about using English language when assessing the students’ learning (statement 25,  $M = 2.2$  and 72.5% either strongly agreeing or agreeing). This contrasts to the view of those few lecturers in the qualitative phase of study who did not provide such unequivocal support. That is, in the first part of study, the data showed that some lecturers believed they should maintain the use of the English language when assessing the students’ learning due to the English load of certain courses, while others saw no difference between assessing them in L1 or L2 whilst others viewed themselves as incapable of conducting assessments in English, and hence, the assessment should be in L1.

Another finding from this quantitative part of the study was in regard to statement 24 (*40% total academic grade of an EMI course should be from students’ attendance and participation in classroom*). While only one lecturer in the qualitative part of the study raised this particular issue, the majority of the lecturers (76.1 %;  $M = 2.13$ ) agreed with this model of student assessment in the target institution.

### ***The benefits of EMI***

Concerning the lecturers’ views on the benefits of EMI practice at the institution, the overall figures indicated strong support for the findings from the first phase of the study with the range of mean scores among these responses being between 1.46 and 2.1. Strong agreement was found for each statement about this particular issue in the survey (11. *EMI practice can improve students’ English proficiency* – 99.1% strongly

agreeing or agreeing; 12. *EMI practice can increase students' learning motivation* – 82.6 % strongly agreeing or agreeing; 13. *EMI practice can improve lecturers' English proficiency* – 98.1 % strongly agreeing or agreeing; 14. *EMI practice can improve lecturers' teaching skills* – 72.4 % strongly agreeing or agreeing; 15. *Through EMI practice, students' opportunities in the job markets are greater*, and 16. *Having an EMI program will improve the University certification* – 91.8 % strongly agreeing or agreeing).

More importantly, for the figures on the improvement of both students and lecturers' English language skills almost all the respondents agreed with statements 11 and 13 (99.1, 98.1), and the mean scores were the lowest two scores in this data set (i.e., 1.46 and 1.49). Furthermore, the SD scores in both measures were the lowest among the others under the umbrella topic of benefits of EMI practice' (0.55 and 0.57). All these results suggest that EMI practice was considered to be an effective medium to improve both of the stakeholders' English proficiency, hence providing support to the findings from the qualitative phase of the study. These figures show only a small variance in the lecturers' views on this topic, particularly if compared to the other statements on the increased students' learning motivation and the lecturers' improved teaching skills (statements 12 and 14, with SD scores 0.7 and 0.73). Thus this smaller spread of responses about the benefits of EMI for English language improvement reflects the belief that there is a direct link between EMI practice and the outcome of English language improvement. Meanwhile, a larger spread of scores was found for the lecturers' responses on the two latter issues in statements (12 and 14) and this seems to suggest a level of disagreement for some lecturers' regarding their perception that EMI enhances students' motivation and improves their teaching skills.



Table 18: Correlations: Issues in the benefits and relevant support for EMI practice

			S 19	S 20	S 21	S 22
Kendall's tau	S 11	Correlation	.383**	.310**	.534**	.522**
		Coefficient	.000	.001	.000	.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)				
		N	109	109	109	109
	S 12	Correlation	.295**	.131	.346**	.267**
		Coefficient	.001	.143	.000	.003
		Sig. (2-tailed)				
		N	109	109	109	109

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

It is worth bearing in mind that during the first qualitative phase of the study, some lecturers suggested that the EMI program could be supported by opening an access for the students to international event programs (statement 21,  $M = 1.51$  with 96.3% strongly agreeing or agreeing) as they might serve to stimulate students' motivation (statement 12). This relationship was evidenced (see Table 18) by a significant relationship between these two measures ( $r = .35, p (2-tailed) > .01$ ). However, in the quantitative phase a considerable number disagreed with statement 12 (with approximately 17% either strongly disagreeing or disagreeing). Other discrepancies were also found between the phases in relation to their perceptions about improving the lecturers' teaching methodology. Together these results may reflect the complex circumstances surrounding EMI practice.

The last two issues regarding the benefit of EMI practice were graduate employability (statement 15,  $M = 1.73$ ), and the advantage for the University certification (statement 16,  $M = 1.72$ ). Both of these measures had the same percentage of the participants' agreement with 91.8% strongly agreeing or agreeing). Thus the latter issue was compelling with such a high level of agreement with these statements, and no lecturers

indicating a strong disagreement with at all. Together these figures provide further confirmation for the lecturers' perspectives on this issue from the first phase of the study.

### ***Support for EMI practice***

Data about the support necessary for EMI implementation in the institution were collected in statements 17 through 23. Once again, overall lecturers strongly agreed with all of these statements as indicated by an average mean score of 1.78.

The mean scores for support for the implementation of EMI include statements 19 (*A bridging course program for the students is necessary for EMI practice*,  $M = 1.73$ , 96.3% strongly agreeing or agreeing) and 20 (*EMI practice requires students to have a minimum English proficiency*,  $M = 1.71$ , 93.6% strongly agreeing or agreeing) were similar. These figures show support for the findings found in the first phase of the study.

The results concerning the issue of implementing parallel classes as a support for the implementation of EMI in the institution indicated another distinct difference from the previous qualitative findings. In the first phase of the study, most of the lecturers, particularly those without EMI teaching experience argued against this because of the lack of the availability of English lecturers at the University. Only a few lecturers with EMI teaching experience appeared to see the potential for implementing parallel classes in the institution by suggesting several practical ways of achieving this including sharing the content and learning focus between those lecturers. However, in the survey 90.8% either strongly agreed or agreed with the statement (18) of the potential to have parallel classes in the University. Given that 14.7 % of respondents with EMI teaching experience participated in this survey, this figure suggests that about 75% of the lecturers without EMI teaching experience also agreed with the implementation of parallel classes as a support for EMI practice within the institution – contrasting quite distinctly from the findings of the first phase. Furthermore, it is noteworthy to see that this particular measure had the smallest SD score (0.47) among all of the statements in the survey. With little disparity among the lecturers' responses, an interpretation could be that there was strong support for introducing parallel classes when implementing EMI in the institution. A similar statistical finding was also found

with regard to the issue of collaborative work between content and language specialists (statement 17 with 89.9% of the participants indicating their agreement). This has been previously described in section 5.1.4 - namely that collaboration between content and language lecturers was expected when implementing parallel classes. This relationship was confirmed with their correlation co-efficient (see Table 19). The issues in statements 17 and 18 had a significant relationship ( $r = .42, p (2\text{-tailed}) > .01$ ).

Table 19: Correlations: Support for EMI implementation

			S 18	S 22	S 23
Kendall's tau	S 17	Correlation	.423**	.392**	.298**
		Coefficient	.000	.000	.001
		Sig. (2-tailed)			
	S18	N	109	109	109
		Correlation	1.000	.170	.186*
		Coefficient		.061	.036
		Sig. (2-tailed)			
	S 22	N	109	109	109
		Correlation	.170	1.000	.346**
		Coefficient	.061		.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)			
		N	109	109	109

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Adopting a content-based English course (statement 22) was viewed as one way of providing more support to the students' language learning in EMI ( $M = 1.75$ ; 92.5% strongly agreed or agreed with this issue), reflecting the perception expressed by some lecturers during the first part of the study. However, it is worth noting that there was a difference in the perception of lecturers regarding content and language learning

within EMI (see 5.1.1). Another issue encapsulated in statement 23 (*The number of English course hours should be increased in order to support EMI practice*;  $M = 2.12$ ; approximately 70% of the participants either strongly agreeing or agreeing with this issue) also appeared to support this perception. Nevertheless, it is worth noting the SD value (0.72) on this particular issue. This value indicates a larger spread of responses for the issue. This finding showing a disparity of responses may reflect the lack of human resources (English specialists) at the University as described by some lecturers during the first part of the study.

In summary, the results of the lecturers' responses to this survey provided support to the results in some areas of the first phase of the study (e.g., terms, learning materials for EMI, the benefits of EMI, and support for EMI implementation), but in other areas less support for the findings in the qualitative phase were shown (e.g. the language use and approach of students' assessment). The next section will describe the statistical comparison between the lecturers' perspectives on EMI and their background factors.

### **5.2.2 Lecturers' demographic background and their views on EMI**

This section responds to Research Question Three: Do the lecturers' backgrounds affect their perception of each issue in EMI practice?

Correlations were computed between the demographic variables and the means of four issues related to their EMI practice, namely, terms used to refer to EMI (TR), types of EMI practices (PR), benefits of EMI practice (BE), and support for implementing EMI (SU). As the means of the issues related to their EMI were computed based on categorical variables, the Kendall's tau correlation was used (see Table 20).

Table 20: Correlations between the demographic background of the lecturers and their views on the issues related to their EMI practice (N = 109)

	Age	CL	EQ	EX	TR	PR	BE	SU
Age	1.000							
Sig.	-							
CL	.567**	1.000						
Sig.	.000	-						
EQ	-.018	.114	1.000					
Sig.	.837	.179	-					
EX	.077	.072	-.012	1.000				
Sig.	.392	.400	.896	-				
TR	-.066	-.160*	.193*	.064	1.000			
Sig.	.436	.048	.031	.481	-			
PR	-.031	-.099	.060	.092	.364	1.000		
Sig.	.681	.174	.461	.263	.000	-		
BE	.018	-.041	-.041	.041	.249	.432	1.000	
Sig.	.815	.581	.616	.623	.001	.000	-	
SU	.045	-.063	.003	-.040	.219	.363	.539	1.000
Sig.	.557	.392	.972	.626	.005	.000	.000	-

<sup>a</sup> Age, CL, Career Level, EQ, Education Qualification, EX, EMI teaching experience,

<sup>b</sup>TR, Term used to refer EMI, PR, types of EMI practices, BE, Benefits of EMI practice, SU, Support for implementing EMI

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Overall there were insignificant correlations between almost all the variables of participants' demographic backgrounds and their views on several key issues in EMI practice. This lack of correlation suggests that there was no evidence of any association between the lecturers' backgrounds (i.e. age and EMI teaching experience) and their perspectives on EMI practice. However, one exception was their educational qualifications and career level which did have a significant correlation with their views particularly on the issue of the terms used to refer to EMI ( $r = .19$ ;  $r = -.16$ ;  $ps$  (2-tailed) = .05). It is also important to note that the small correlation between the lecturers' career group and those terms had both negative and positive coefficient values. There was a positive correlation between the lecturers' educational backgrounds and the terms suggesting a relationship between educational background and the lecturers' understanding related to EMI. In contrast, the negative correlation between the lecturers' career level and their understanding of the terms reflects a converse relationship between these elements (specifically the lower the level, the more familiar the lecturers were with the terms).

### **5.2.3 Summary of the findings of the Phase Two study**

The majority, but not all of the issues raised in the first phase of the study were supported by the statistical findings in the second phase of the study. Specifically, the lecturers' understanding about some issues (e.g., EMI terms, language use in EMI classroom) in EMI practice was confirmed. A few issues found to be different in the two phases included conducting assessment and introducing parallel classes. Finally, there were few significant correlations between lecturers' perspectives on EMI practice and their backgrounds.

### **5.3 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter presented the findings from both the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study. Several issues from focus groups interviews and in-depth interviews were raised including the lecturers' understanding of EMI – terms and practical ways in the classroom, their perceived challenges and opportunities to implement EMI at the University, and their suggestions for necessary support for EMI practice. The results for the second phase of the study show that most of the issues that emerged from the

qualitative phase of the study were confirmed in this second stage. The next chapter discusses these findings.

## **CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION**

### **6.0 Introduction**

This chapter provides a discussion of the key research findings presented in Chapter 5, with reference to each of the research questions. The results of the research study are also discussed in comparison to previous studies. In Section 6.1, the discussion of the findings in answer to the research questions is presented. This includes an outline of the variety of terms used to refer to EMI, approaches to this practice, and the implications of these perspectives with respect to the link between support and potential benefits of EMI practice, and other arrangements concerning the University curriculum. In section 6.2, a brief summary of the chapter is provided.

### **6.1 Lecturers' perspectives on EMI practice**

This section discusses the key findings emerging from the data collection regarding the lecturers' perceptions of EMI practice at a university in Indonesia. In addressing the RQs the discussion compares and contrasts the lecturers' responses from the first and second phases of the study. The following two subsections discuss the terms referring to EMI practice and EMI courses suitable for the practice. Next, Subsection 6.1.3 discusses the theoretical and practical approaches for EMI. The following two subsections examine the benefits and support necessary for implementing EMI in Indonesian HE. The last subsection discusses the implications for EMI implementation in the target institution.

#### **6.1.1 EMI terms**

Firstly, the findings show that the teachers in this study used two terms to refer to EMI – “bilingual classes” and “international classes”. As suggested by the qualitative results from the first phase, bilingual classes appeared to be the term most consistently used by the lecturers to refer to EMI, possibly because of a voluntary bilingual pilot program that existed at the target university at the time when the research was



conducted (Pondasi University, 2015b). “Bilingual classes”, as the term suggests, are where two languages are used concurrently in a classroom, however, in the current study “bilingual classes” refers to classes where instruction was mainly in English (be it only partially so in some contexts). This term is also being used in universities throughout Indonesia (Universitas Negeri Medan, 2016; Semarang State University, 2016) and it is perhaps for this reason that it was widely used by the participants in this study to mean the same thing as EMI.

In Indonesia, including at the target university, the goal of implementing EMI through such a bilingual curriculum is to enhance the students’ English skills. This is similar to what has been reported in other studies, particularly in respect of improving English proficiency related to students’ discipline-based professional skills (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2013; Gill & Kirkpatrick, 2013). Because of this, the purpose of instruction within “bilingual classes” in the current context appears to have a similar foundational pedagogy to CLIL (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010).

The current findings show that the term “international classes” was also used by the participants to describe EMI. This term seemed to emerge because of the practices used in a number of local educational institutions in the country, such as at the University of Gadjah Mada (2016), the University of Indonesia (2016a) and the University of Ciputra (2016). It is also possible that the participants’ perceptions reflect the global phenomenon of internationalisation of HE and the importance of English within “international classes” (Soejatminah, 2009; Gill & Kirkpatrick, 2013). In fact, a few lecturers during the first phase of the study described this particular term as the practice of using one language only, namely English. Therefore, the term “international classes” appeared to be understood in the current context as the practice of English instruction and especially in relation to catering for international students (and hence the use of the term). Additionally, this perception may reflect the regulations enforced to enable students to enrol in these EMI programs (Wächter & Maiworm, 2008), specifically they are required to have a certain level of English proficiency as measured by international instruments such as the PBT TOEFL (Universitas Indonesia, 2016b), or the ‘International English Language Test System’ (IELTS) (Australian Awards, 2015). In this way, the current findings are similar to those of Wächter and Maiworm (2008) who found that universities providing ‘English-

taught programs', generally required students to have achieved sufficient scores in TOEFL or IELTS to enrol in these programs.

In addition, the statistical data showed that lecturers' educational background did have a significant correlation with their perception, specifically of terms used to refer to EMI. That is, their experiences and, in particular, further study undertaken in local universities and overseas appeared to have contributed to their opinion about EMI. Specifically, those with greater educational experience were more likely to consider EMI to be international classes, whereas those with limited educational experience used both the terms "bilingual classes" and "international classes". This was illustrated in the interviews with one of the more experienced participants:

Untuk pendidikan tinggi biasanya kelasnya kelas internasional  
(Lina/FG1)

*[At the university level, the class is said to be an international class  
(Lina/FG1)]*

It is noteworthy to bear in mind that the descriptions, specifically of the term "bilingual classes" were often co-constructed with the researcher due to this particular term was being used at the University. The following extract shows this situation:

M: Apa yang Bapak/Ibu tahu tentang kelas bilingual

.....

Karina: Kalau nurut Karina, kelas bilingual adalah kelas yang menggunakan dua bahasa, satu Bahasa Indonesia dan satunya lagi bahasa asing, dimana yang kita kenalkan disini adalah Bahasa Inggris (FG4)

*[M: So what do you know about bilingual classes?*

.....

*Karina: In my opinion, a bilingual class is a class that uses two languages, Indonesian and the foreign language. The foreign language we introduce here is English. (FG4)]*

However, such a finding is different from what Aguilar (2015) found in her study, namely that there were no correlations between lecturers' perceptions of EMI and their background factors (i.e., their teaching position, EMI teaching experience, and specific

training). It should be noted that her study was conducted in Europe where EMI has been practiced for some considerable time, so lecturers in that context are more likely to be familiar with EMI. In contrast, the lecturers in the current study received information about EMI from local universities and did so more recently than their European counterparts. Furthermore, the findings from the survey (Phase Two of the study), unlike the interviews, showed that many of the participants equated EMI to both “bilingual classes” and “international classes” regardless of demographic factors.

Together these contrasting results do suggest that context may influence the practitioners’ perceptions about EMI. This interpretation supports Dalton-Puffer (2011, p. 183) who asserts the variety of bilingual education programs ‘often depends as much on its cultural and political frame of reference as on the actual characteristics of the program’.

Overall, these findings reflect the lecturers’ low level of understanding about EMI practice which may explain why there is an incoherence in the way in which EMI is being implemented (this is further elaborated in Subsection 6.1.3). Indeed, in Indonesia, and in the target institution in particular, there seems to be some confusion about what EMI means. On the one hand, some consider that it is a bilingual approach that also has a dual focus of content and language learning (Coyle et al., 2010) which is in line with CLIL practice. Alternatively, and perhaps in response to the need to cater for international students in certain local universities, it involves the use of English only for instruction and this occurs without the need to assess students’ language learning and hence it is not related to CLIL practice at all.

The teachers’ perceptions about EMI terms in the current study contrast sharply with the findings of Aguilar (2015). In her study, undertaken in Catalan universities in Spain, a clear distinction was made by her participants between the terms CLIL (an approach of integrating content and language learning) and EMI (a teaching approach focusing only on content with no assessment of English language learning). Even so, it should be noted that like Aguilar’s (2015) findings, some participants in the current study saw CLIL as a way to support students who have limited language skills. Although they may have used the term “bilingual classes”, the lecturers’ focus was very much on the way to improve their students’ limited English especially for learning

content-related language. It does suggest, however, that CLIL pedagogy (Coyle et al., 2010) may be a useful approach to consider for the current context.

Taking such an approach is supported in the work of Arno-Macia and Mancho-Bares' (2015) who undertook another study in a Catalan university in Spain. They focused on the terms CLIL and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) because there had been a shift over time from the latter to the former. Their participants favoured the term CLIL and they also perceived it to be a more effective approach for teaching English language than ESP. This does contrast to the responses of the teachers during the first phase of the current study where some suggested that the University should adopt an ESP approach in its current English course. Further, from their responses it appeared that they felt language should be taught by ESP lecturers, whilst content learning should be covered by discipline teaching staff within the different faculties. In this way, it appeared that they felt there should be a separation between content and language learning. How such a parallel language and content approach could be applied in the current context is an area worthy of much further research.

Based on the findings it does seem that policy makers need to provide clear guidelines about what and why a certain term should be adopted and how it should be enacted. Such clear guidance will allow for commonality of understanding about EMI to be developed in the target institution and in Indonesia more generally. There needs to be clear direction about how the two languages should be used for instruction, assessment, and in the learning materials. This could be done in a way that mirrors the situation in Europe where there are clear policies and where there are guidelines about what level of English Proficiency university graduates need to attain (Council of Europe, 2001). To date the requirements for teaching English and the target language outcomes are unclear in Indonesia (Sumitomo et al., 2012; Zacharias 2013). In fact, a few participants in the first phase of this study commented about this limited guidance. This is clearly a strategy that could be recommended to the target institution.

### **6.1.2 EMI courses**

According to the participants in the interviews, one way to successfully introduce EMI at the University is to focus on certain core courses (e.g., Science and Technology)

and particularly those that are relevant to EMI practice. They perceived that non-core courses, such as Religion, Indonesian Language, and Citizenship (outlined in the Law of Higher Education of 2012, Number 12) had no relevance to EMI practice and so these should not be included. When this suggestion was surveyed in Phase Two, there was strong agreement. Such perceptions may reflect the extensive use of English in the nominated core courses, including in the textbooks for these (Ammon, 2001; Jenkins, 2003; Graddol, 2006) and the fact that new knowledge in these disciplines is often conveyed in English.

The participants' perceptions may also reflect what is described in current policies and what has occurred in practice, namely that when EMI was first introduced, it was done so in certain courses, such as Science and Mathematics (Depdiknas, cited by Coleman, 2011). These perceptions may also reflect the case that the majority of the studies on EMI practice undertaken to date have been in courses such as Engineering, Business, Accounting, and Mathematics (Aguilar & Rodriguez, 2012; Aguilar, 2015; Basibek et al., 2014; Floris, 2014; Werther et al., 2014; Arno-Macia & Mancho-Bares, 2015; Tavares, 2015). Even so, it is worth noting that in the current study a number of teachers (about 10%) from core courses disagreed with this proposition, indicating that EMI should be introduced in other courses. This figure might suggest a lack of interest in or knowledge about EMI practice on their behalf.

With regard to the process of implementing EMI in the target university, the findings indicated that the participants had a number of concerns. Firstly, some were unsure if EMI practice would enable compliance with the current content of the curriculum. In turn, this concern may reflect the lack of availability of a standardised curriculum. Secondly, because of the dual learning goals of language and content, EMI is difficult to implement if the necessary academic language assessment tools have not been set or those being used are not appropriate. At present IELTS or TOEFL are being used for this purpose in EMI practice. In this way, the current study supports the findings of Dalton-Puffer (2011), who highlights two main concerns, namely a lack of availability of standardised core courses' tests and the difficulty in evaluating academic language. Therefore, along with Dalton-Puffer (2011), the findings from this study suggest the need for further investigation about the curriculum and about assessment – both of content and of language.

### 6.1.3 Theoretical and practical approaches to EMI

#### *Language use in EMI classroom*

The findings from both phases of the study indicated that the perception of the participants was that the practice of codeswitching between L1 and L2 is important within EMI classrooms. A number of reasons were proffered to explain this. In Phase One of the study, the participants explained that the importance of L1 was due to the fact that the students had a limited level English proficiency. Further, as also indicated in the findings of Phase Two, these sentiments were confirmed statistically with strong support for the statements about the use of L1 and L2 in EMI practice: *Indonesian (the students' first language - L1) should be used for the purposes of translation during EMI practice; L1 should be used for the delivery of key content during EMI practice.*

This was also supported by evidence emerging from the interviews where the teaching staff described two main ways in which L1 could be used in the EMI classrooms: The first way being for translation, and the second where they used both English and L1 in specific teaching situations, such as the delivery of key lesson content. However, such a narrow range of responses does suggest that the lecturers have a limited understanding about the role of L1 and L2 in EMI. This is in contrast to the findings of Lasagabaster (2013) and Tavares' (2015) where in the first study lecturers were able to suggest a number of functions of L1 in the classroom, such as managing classroom learning and providing feedback for students', and similarly, in the second, Tavares describes how teachers planned for L1 use in the EMI classroom, how students used L1 for answering the teacher's questions and the lecturers described developing with students a note-book consisting of a repertoire of key words.

Several latter strategies (Lagabaster, 2013; Tavares, 2015) are actually similar to those described by some lecturers in the current study. Specifically, they articulated the way L1 was useful for teaching vocabulary. This includes using English textbooks to do so. In this way, the teachers' perceptions in the current study reflect previous research suggesting vocabulary teaching is vital within EMI (Martinez, 2014) because by gaining specialised technical vocabulary, the students may access the content knowledge, or what Coyle et al. (2010) call the "language of learning".

Even so, the difference between what the participants in the current study suggested and what those in Lasagabaster (2015) and Tavares' (2015) studies said may reflect the introductory stage of EMI practice in the current context. That is, the teachers in those two studies had been teaching EMI in their courses for a considerable length of time, while only a few lecturers in the current study (about six) had experience doing so, and for less than four years. Furthermore, the majority of the lecturers in the current study had no specific EMI teaching methodology training, whereas the teachers in Tavares' (2015) study had undergone continuous professional development about EMI teaching methods. Again this highlights the importance of context and how the situation contributes to the lecturers' knowledge (or lack thereof) about the potential role of codeswitching. It again reinforces the need for such training and it is a further recommendation for the target university.

The findings from the current study also differ from those of Jensen and Thøgersen (2011) in research conducted in a Danish university. They found that the lecturers had a positive attitude towards the use of English in their EMI classrooms even though they preferred L1 to be used when disseminating information. In contrast, the lecturers in the current study indicated they were concerned about improving their students' limited English skills and they indicated that they believe English is necessary to use in order for students to comprehend the readings related to their courses. Despite what they said, however, it was found that English was not widely used at all. For example, only one of the departments had implemented the use of English for students in their final project report writing.

At the same time, both studies found relationships between lecturers' backgrounds and their attitudes/understanding. Specifically, Jensen and Thøgersen's (2011) study showed a relationship between lecturers' backgrounds (i.e., age and EMI teaching experience) and their attitude towards the increased use of English in EMI classroom. The statistical data of the second phase of the current study also showed that lecturers' educational background did have a significant correlation with their perception, specifically of the EMI term. This may reflect the context of the study. In Jensen and Thøgersen's (2011) study, the lecturers had involved in EMI practice for a considerable length of time. This experience seems to have contributed to their positive

attitude towards the use English in their classroom teaching. In the context of the current study, with the spread of EMI practice in universities throughout the world (Graddol, 2006; Gill & Kirkpatrick, 2013), some of the lecturers had pursued higher degree studies overseas (Germany, Australia, and Japan). Even some local universities' graduates (Universitas Gadjah Mada, 2016; Universitas Indonesia, 2016) are familiar with the term EMI because of the international classes that are practised there. This particular experience appears to have contributed to their understanding of terms used to refer to EMI.

How to systematically use L1 and L2 in EMI classrooms (Lin, 2015) is one of the key questions to emerge from the current study. Clearly there is a need to carefully consider policies and practices pertaining to codeswitching (Lin, 2015; Canagarajah, 1995). This is something that policy makers and administrators at the target institution need to address. Lin (2015), for example, proposes some of the ways L1 and L2 can be used in different stages and phases of the curriculum within the EMI classroom. If a similar practice was followed at the target university, this would allow students' language skills development to be supported which would, in turn, be beneficial for students' content and language learning processes. In this way, the dual-focus goal of EMI (Coyle et al., 2010) might be achieved. This is an area that needs further exploration, particularly in the current context.

### ***Assessment***

The issue of language use was also raised in relation to the assessment of students' learning in the EMI classroom. Lecturers had mixed perceptions about this particular issue. In the first phase of the study, some lecturers reported that certain courses (e.g., IT) were "English laden" fields of study, suggesting that the assessment of student learning should be in English. Other lecturers had no concerns as to whether assessments were conducted in either L1 or L2, although, if there was a problem with the students' level of English proficiency, then they suggested the assessments should either be conducted in L1 alone, or could be in L2, but accompanied with an L1 translation. The statistical results in Phase Two showed a majority (about 70%) of the participants strongly agreed or agreed with the use of English for assessing students' learning in EMI practice.



Other participants suggested in the interviews that when English is used to evaluate the students' learning, first there is a need to identify key linguistic features and that these should be covered by the EMI lecturers. For example, if an assessment was based on a procedural text, students might be introduced to 'imperative or command words'. This particular need was described by one lecturer (Tari) in Section 5.1.1, especially in the topics 'Language use for EMI classroom' and 'Assessment of students' learning in EMI'. In this way, learning exercises and the assessment would be authentic and, in turn, this would help students in the long term to meet the demands of the workplace.

Thus, these lecturers' perceptions about the use of L1 or L2 in assessing students' learning reflect their level understanding of EMI. For example, it appears that the general perception is that students need a certain level of English proficiency before commencing the EMI program at the target university (this particular issue of minimum English skill requirements for students is described in section 6.1.5). However, this is contrary to the position reflected in the literature addressing a dual focus in learning and assessment conducted in L2 (Coyle, 2005; Coyle et al., 2010; Lin, 2015). It could of course be that the lecturers felt unable to conduct assessment in this way due to their own lack of skills. In fact, this was admitted by one lecturer during the interviews. This might have led to assessment of the content learning only and thus illustrates the common practice of dividing language from content in some contexts (Aguilar & Rodriguez, 2012; Airey, 2011).

The separation of content and language learning for assessment purposes has also been found in other studies, for example by Aguilar and Rodriguez (2012). The lecturers in their study did not assess the students' English language learning because they did not feel prepared to do so. When asked about their willingness for some methodological training, they indicated their reluctance due to their dissatisfaction with the limited support given to them by their institution (Aguilar & Rodriguez, 2012). In the current study, lecturers also described a similar lack of support.

The current study also supported Airey's (2011) findings who described how there were challenges in providing students with feedback in the students' L2. Like the current study, his results also reflected a perception on behalf of the teaching staff that there should be separation between content and language learning. However, in

Airey's (2011) study, staff members were being provided with methodological EMI training. As previously indicated, such an arrangement is not the case in the current context.

Lecturers also raised another key issue regarding the assessment of students' learning in the EMI classroom. Specifically, in the first phase of the study, one lecturer described how 40% of the students' overall grade was based on their engagement in the classroom. The teacher indicated that this strategy was useful for encouraging students' involvement in the learning process, and it also helped with their motivation in the EMI classroom. However, there was a level of disagreement about this from other participants due to their perception of the need to assess students' content mastery, not only their engagement in class. However, when surveyed in Phase Two, a large number of participants did show strong agreement (76.1%) with this model.

The general positive perception about assessing students in this way may reflect the fact that the University is a vocational HE institution and allocating 60% of assessment for class engagement may be because of the practical orientation of the learning context. Whether or not this is the most appropriate way to undertake assessment is yet to be determined. To date there is a paucity of studies investigating different models of assessment, especially in Indonesian universities. Therefore, this is another area worthy of further research.

### ***Learning materials for EMI***

There were several issues the lecturers raised regarding which learning materials to use for EMI practice, including English textbooks and their translation, and the use of multimedia learning materials. In general, there was coherence between the findings from the first and second phases of the study, in particular with respect to the lecturers' current and high level use of English textbooks, especially in the areas of Science and Technology. Thus, to some extent, the findings of the current study are congruent with those of Goodman (2014) and Basibek et al.'s (2014) studies. It does show that for the lecturers, at least for those in these areas (Science and Technology), the pedagogical concept underpinning EMI (and CLIL) practice - where students learn content in English and learn English through content (Coyle et al., 2010) - was being realised. Such a practice is supported by Lin (2015) who suggests the importance of English

textbooks in EMI classroom is that they provide access for the students to both L2 academic content and to the L2 more generally. In other words, the route of language learning (Coyle, 2005) can be provided through the use of these authentic resources.

Unlike these two studies, however, the current study did not examine the availability of such textbooks even though during the interviews some lecturers claimed there to be an immense number of English textbooks in certain fields of study. This is an area where further investigation might be a worthy undertaking, if only to provide pedagogic direction for the lecturing staff.

There were some mixed perceptions amongst the participants about the translation of learning materials into the students' L1, although generally most were supportive of this practice. For example, this interpretation was indicated by strong agreement (76.2%) with the statement that there should be such provision. During the first phase of the study, some teachers also described how they gave oral translations during the lessons. Others talked about how they adapted materials for the different learning modules by providing both Indonesian and English. Further, these approaches were done in response to their concern about the students' current level of English. At the same time, there were others who rejected this practice because they felt the EMI classroom should enrich the course content, not be devoted to translation. Hence, they required a certain level of English proficiency for the EMI students on enrolment so that they would be able to understand the content knowledge in English.

It is worth noting, however, that one official task of EMI lecturers is to adapt learning materials (Coyle et al., 2010), even though some participants indicated their reluctance to do this. This particular finding does imply there is a lack of shared understanding about what pedagogy should be used for EMI in the current context. Developing a policy in this regard is another recommendation to emerge from the current study.

A number of lecturers described how they considered the use of multimedia learning resources was necessary for EMI courses. Further, there was coherence between the findings in both phases in this respect, perhaps reflecting the teachers' understanding about the complex learning environment the students would encounter when using a foreign language, particularly English.

The importance of multiple sources of learning also corresponds to the findings of Perez Canado (2014). In her study, the teaching staff seemed well-informed about the use of multimedia software and online reference materials, even though they also indicated their need for some support in developing ICT options and designing and adapting the learning materials for their classroom teaching (Perez Canado, 2014). The lecturers in the current study, however, only mentioned the use of PowerPoint slides. The early stage of EMI practice in the current context might have contributed to their lack of familiarity with other types of multimedia. A further recommendation, therefore, would be for the target university to invest in professional development for lecturers in this area.

#### **6.1.4 Benefits of EMI**

Regarding the implementation of EMI at the target university, the lecturers considered several potential benefits of EMI for the students, lecturers and the target institution itself. The results from both phases of the study indicated that lecturers believed that through EMI students might improve their English proficiency. This is positive given it is the intention of the practice. It might also reflect the lecturers' own experience of learning a second language where intensive exposure to the L2 supported their language learning. This finding is in line with the findings of the study by Aguilar (2015).

Another area where some lecturers perceived that EMI practice would provide benefit is through its potential contribution to increase students' learning motivation. However, there were mixed perceptions about this. During the interviews some lecturers suggested that students who are interested in English might benefit in this way. Other lecturers, however, were concerned about their students' level of learning motivation in general and said if the English that is used in classes has no association with their future career, developing students' learning motivation could be challenging. This mixed response was also reflected in the quantitative results, where approximately 17% of the participants either strongly disagreed or disagreed with this idea.

This particular finding raises other questions about EMI practice at the university and whether, given the low level of motivation (and proficiency) of some students, that all students should be enrolled in the program, which is currently the intention at the target university. Hence, this finding suggests the policy around EMI implementation and student enrolment at the University may need to be carefully considered.

Another perceived benefit of EMI practice for students is that it may contribute to their employability after completing their course. Once again, this reflects the findings from Aguilar's (2015) study, which found that the lecturers perceived EMI practice would benefit the employability and mobility of their graduates.

Regarding the benefits of EMI practice for lecturers, the general perception appeared to be that it may support the development of their English and teaching methodology skills. This was also an outcome expected by the lecturers in Werther et al's (2014) and Floris' (2014) studies, particularly the improvement of their own English proficiency. This positive perception of EMI benefits also supports the findings of a study conducted by Arno-Marcia and Mancho-Bares (2015).

In spite of the majority of the lecturers showing their agreement to the statement (72.4% agreeing or strongly agreeing in Phase Two of the study) that EMI can benefit their teaching methodology, there was a wide spread of responses in the survey with more than a quarter indicating disagreement. This discrepancy may reflect the complex circumstances that currently exist in the target university with respect to the classroom demands and practices. This is a view that was supported during Phase One of the study. For example:

Saya masih akan mempertimbangkannya karena saya merasa kemampuan Bahasa Inggris saya masih terbatas dan jika memang diperbolehkan mungkin saya akan lebih dominan masih menggunakan Bahasa Indonesia ketimbang Bahasa Inggris - 80% Bahasa Indonesia dan 20 % Bahasa Inggris. (Karina/FG4)

*[I still consider that because my English is limited, if I am allowed to I might still use Indonesian predominantly - 80% Indonesian and 20 % English. (Karina/FG4)]*

Saya belum siap jika semester depan diadakan kelas bilingual di mata kuliah saya yang saya ampu jadi perasaannya masih kurang nyaman. Untuk memulai kelas bilingual tentunya harus dipersiapkan terlebih dahulu dosen, staf maupun mahasiswanya agar kelas tersebut bisa berjalan baik. .... jika belum siap maka resikonya isi substansi dari materi yang akan disampaikan berisiko untuk tidak tersampaikan dengan baik (Bento/FG4)

*[I am not ready, if next semester the bilingual class is implemented in my course. I feel uncomfortable. To start a bilingual class requires preparation of the lecturers and the students so the class will run well..... If this is not prepared, the consequence is that the content of the course, which is delivered, cannot be conveyed well. (Bento/FG4)]*

Saya merasa belum siap (jika diminta mengajar kelas EMI) karena bahasa Inggris saya masih kurang. Untuk tahap awal saya akan pakai kombinasi atau sisipkan bahasa Inggris sehingga lama-kelamaan menjadi terbiasa dan pd akhirnya kemampuan bhs saya menjadi meningkat. (Anang/FG2)

*[I do not feel ready (if asked to teach EMI classes) because my English is limited. At the first stage, I can combine the two languages; I insert English in my teaching while still using Indonesian. Gradually I can get used to it and finally my English skills will improve. (Anang/FG2)]*

It is worth noting that these particular extracts were elicited when the lecturers, especially from the groups without/less EMI teaching experience, were asked about their opinion when/if they were asked to teach EMI courses. The majority expressed their reluctance due to their lack of the skill for doing this task. If the first lecturer said that there was the need for a preparation in general, the second appears to specify that teaching methods that was his main concern.

These complexities also emerged in the findings of Vinke et al. (1998) and of Werther et al. (2014). In particular, in these studies the lecturers' expressed frustration about the difficulties they encountered trying to improve their teaching because of shortcomings in their English proficiency. In the current study, it is worth noting that the length of lecturers' experience of teaching EMI had no impact on such feelings. The majority of the lecturers in the current study (approximately 85%) had no experience with EMI practice, whereas at least 75% of the participants in the previous

studies had a minimum of one-year experience of EMI teaching (Vinke et al., 1998; Werther et al., 2014).

Thus, this particular finding suggests that in addition to a certain level of English proficiency they need to have, lecturers may also need professional development about EMI teaching methods to help them support students' content and language learning in EMI classrooms. This is a further recommendation that can be made to the target institution.

With regard to the benefit of EMI to the target institution, the lecturers believed that the level of certification (otherwise known as accreditation) for the University could be improved. This certification refers to a process of evaluation and comprehensive assessment of the institution's commitment to quality and implementation capacity, its level of service in the areas of teaching, research, and community support and the overall feasibility of its programs and education units (BAN PT, 2016).

The lecturers' perceptions of a benefit in this regard (i.e., with respect to certification) reflects their understanding about the official government requirements (i.e., BAN PT, 2016). They recognise that innovative programs such as having international institutional collaboration (which can be promoted by way of EMI programs) have the potential to increase a university's institution level of certification. During the interviews, for example, some lecturers explained how their students' improved English contributed to their institution accreditation level. Further, the statistical results of the survey showed that a large number of lecturers agreed with the statement that EMI supports the University's level of certification. While there appears to be no studies specifically conducted on this particular issue, it is important in the current context and needs to be acknowledged and be considered in relation to recommendations for EMI.

#### **6.1.5 Support for EMI practice**

A number of support mechanisms for EMI implementation were suggested by the participants and supported by their survey responses. Most, however, were related to the importance of English proficiency. These included the need for: English bridging

courses, minimum English skill requirements for students, collaborative work between content and language lecturers, the adoption of content based instruction (CBI), or the use of a CBI approach in English courses, and parallel classes for English courses and EMI courses. In addition, international programs were viewed as essential.

What is clear from the first two suggestions in particular is the perception that a minimum level of English proficiency is needed to enable students to participate effectively in an EMI learning environment. As articulated by some lecturers during the first phase of the study, the students are challenged in EMI classrooms when their English is limited. Even in Joe and Lee's (2013) study students with high English proficiency with a score of (approximately) 590 in the PBT TOEFL found the learning challenging. Further, it was not only the students' level of English proficiency, but also the participants' perception of the limited English skills of the lecturers that made it less possible for them to practise EMI.

The idea of support for EMI (collaborative work between content and language specialists) is related to the other two approaches suggested by the lecturers, namely parallel classes and the adoption of content-based English instruction (CBI) in the English course. In Phase One of the study lecturers described practical ways of realising such collaboration. First, the adoption of a CBI into the current English course in the University was considered to be a crucial way to enable EMI implementation. Further, statistical results indicated evidence of a relationship between these two issues (i.e.,  $r = .42$ ,  $p$  (2-tailed)  $> .01$ ). Further, this idea of adopting CBI approach in English courses supports the findings of Arno-Macia and Mancho-Bares (2015). They found that different levels of language support across the courses were provided in several departments (Law, Accounting, Business, and Agronomy). In addition to the availability of ESP courses, there was team teaching between content and language specialists in the context of their study (Arno-Macia & Mancho-Bares, 2015) – an approach that could be promoted in the current context.

However, from the teachers' responses during the first phase of this study, this idea did lead to the interpretation that there was a divide between content and language learning and teaching in EMI practice. By having CBI-based English courses, the lecturers perceived their EMI task would be a language-support-free role. Again, this



finding reflects the lecturers' lack of knowledge about the type of approaches that can be used in EMI practice. Once more this suggests a need for professional development and training for lecturing staff.

In general, lecturers' perceptions about having CBI-based English courses at the University seem suggest that for EMI courses to be most relevant for CLIL practice, i.e. weak/soft CLIL (Ball, 2009; Met, 1998) a particular type of ELT approach may need to be developed (Simbolon, 2015).

Another suggestion made by the lecturers was implementing a parallel class situation. Based on the lecturers' description during the interviews, this reflects an "adjunct CLIL" position - one of the three models of EMI suggested by Coyle et al. (2010) for practice in HE institutions (with the other two forms being "plurilingual education", and "language-embedded content courses"). The lecturers explained that such collaboration should begin with course curriculum development, and then in the classroom, the English lecturer presents the language component of the content curriculum at the same time of the content topic is presented by the content specialist within the same EMI classroom.

Despite quantitative findings showing lecturers' strong agreement (89.9% either strongly agreeing or agreeing) with the idea of holding parallel classes, it is worth nothing, however, some lecturers' did not agree because they were concerned about the situation where there are a limited number of English specialists. Hence they appeared to be concerned with the practicalities of such an approach. Again, in the context of current study there is a need to determine an agreed upon model of EMI, including clear directions about the role of each lecturer.

The lecturers also considered the provision of international programs to be a necessary support mechanism for EMI practice. The programs may include student exchange, international competition, and public lectures by an English native expert. During the interviews some lecturers described how international events might support students and the lecturers to participate in EMI programs. Further, the statistical results show lecturers' strong agreement with the provision of these international programs (96.3% either strongly agreeing or agreeing with the issue). Furthermore, this issue also

corresponds with one of the outcomes of Indonesian HE's KKNI curriculum (Sailah, 2014). This curriculum which is currently used in Indonesian HE clearly indicates that such international collaborations are expected to take place.

#### **6.1.6 Implications for the implementations of EMI**

Based on the findings there are some clear implications for the implementation of EMI at the target university. They included a greater number of hours to be offered in the English courses at the University, the revision on its current curriculum, and development of policies around how EMI should be implemented.

The lecturers suggested that an increase is needed in the hours available for the English course, especially as a consequence of the need for teaching staff (content and language specialists) to work collaboratively. In practice, they perceived that English courses should have the same number of semesters as the content courses. However, it is worth noting there was some disagreement about these issues in the survey. Whilst only about 10% of the lecturers strongly disagreed or disagreed about such collaborative work, a noticeable number (approximately 30%) of the lecturers indicated their disagreement with the statement of increasing the number of hours for English courses at the institution. Furthermore, this particular result also might reflect a view that there are ways of undertaking such collaborative work other than by increasing the hours of the English course. This might be an area worthy of future investigation. Thus it appears from the findings that there is a need for curriculum revision and review, including in relation to the teaching method, ways of realising collaborative work between both specialists, and the increased number of hours in English courses. As these issues were not examined in Phase Two of the study, a pilot study investigating how this could be achieved could be undertaken in a future study.

## 6.2 Summary

From the qualitative phase of the study a number of critical issues emerged as follows: EMI terms, EMI courses, types of EMI practice, benefits of EMI practice, and, support necessary for EMI implementation. In general, the lecturers' views reflected their lack of knowledge about EMI, as shown in the tension between their understanding of EMI practice and the pedagogical approaches described in Phase One. First, there was strong agreement between the two terms (bilingual classes and international classes) to refer to EMI practice which appeared to be evidence of this tension. However, the paucity of any clear direction from the target institution and the government should be noted. Moreover, despite their lack of familiarity with this practice, codeswitching was seen as necessary in the current context. In addition, their perception of vocabulary teaching seemed to be one of the methods favoured by them in the EMI classroom context. Similarly, the use of L2 textbooks was deemed effective in enriching the EMI classroom. Additionally, the perception that EMI motivates students was seen as beneficial. However, some critical issues need to be considered by the policy makers prior to the implementation of EMI.

Several issues deserve further detailed investigation. They include EMI terms, the ways to practising the parallel language and content approach, and having separate EMI programs.

## **CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS**

### **7.0 Introduction**

This chapter commences with a summary of the key findings of the research (7.1). The pedagogical implications for EMI lecturers and the target institution are presented following this summary (7.2). In section 7.3 the limitations of the study are assessed and recommendations for further investigation are presented subsequently in 7.4. A final conclusion is then provided.

### **7.1 Summary of key findings**

The main objective of this study was to examine lecturers' perspectives on EMI practice in one HE institution in Indonesia, in particular to examine their understandings about the terms used to refer to EMI, the practical applications of EMI in the classroom, and the challenges, benefits and necessary support for EMI implementation in the target University. Specifically, the study was conducted in a state University in West Kalimantan, Indonesia, where EMI practice was being introduced. The data for this study were collected by way of in depth interviews with a small number of University teaching staff and their views were then compared and contrasted with a large number of responses obtained by means of a survey. In this way, a triangulated approach was used in order to collect data by means of multiple instruments.

In doing so, it was also possible to investigate if there were correlations between the lecturers' backgrounds and their perspectives on EMI practice.

The majority of issues found in the first phase of the study as identified by the lecturers were supported by the findings in the second phase of the study. Those in which there were slightly different results included implementing parallel classes and language use in assessing students' learning. Overall, the lecturers appeared to lack knowledge about EMI and this appears to have contributed to the tension between their understanding of EMI practice and the pedagogical approaches that they perceived to be used in its implementation. Most problematic in the lecturers' understanding were

the terms used to refer to EMI, codeswitching practices in the classrooms, and language use in conducting assessment.

In spite of lecturers' current limited understanding about EMI, the findings suggest that codeswitching (Lin, 2015; Canagarajah, 1995) and vocabulary teaching are considered by practitioners to be necessary components of the approach. Both of these practices reflect CLIL pedagogy because they allow students to access content knowledge whilst at the same time developing their English language proficiency (Coyle et al., 2010).

The findings also show that the lecturers perceived English textbooks to be vital to EMI practices as they provide authentic resources. In turn, authentic experiences including not only the use of books, but also international events such as international competition in their subject and student exchange were purported to equip graduates for the workplace.

Overall, it does seem that the perception amongst teaching staff is that the EMI program has the potential to develop students' subject matter knowledge and English language proficiency. However, there are a number of issues that need to be addressed in order for the implementation of EMI to be successful and on this basis a set of recommendations are made.

## **7.2 Implications and recommendations**

The results of the current study have important implications for the University and its teaching staff. First, it is apparent that there is a need to develop much stronger collaborative links between content and English lecturers. There is also a strong need to address the current situation of lecturers and in particular their lack of English proficiency and knowledge of EMI teaching methods. Developing higher levels of English proficiency is particularly important to enable lecturers to better use codeswitching and vocabulary teaching within EMI classes. Furthermore, there is a need for greater resourcing so that learning materials can be developed, particularly those that provide support directed towards ICT-based learning.

For the institution where the study was conducted there are further implications. Firstly, policy makers need to provide clear guidelines about what term should be adopted, why, and how it should be enacted in the University. In addition, there is a need for careful consideration of policies and practices pertaining to codeswitching. The findings also suggest there is a need for policy development pertaining to EMI implementation, especially with regard to student enrolment at the University and level of English proficiency required.

In addition, it does seem that the administrators of the University need to provide training for EMI lecturers. This training should be in the area of strategies for codeswitching practice, vocabulary teaching, and adapting learning materials for EMI courses they teach. The target university also needs to invest in the area of developing, designing and adapting ICT-based learning materials.

On this basis the following recommendations can be made to university administrators:

- Clear guidelines about the term and strategies to be used in implementing EMI need to be provided;
- Clarity is needed about EMI policy implementation, particularly about minimum English proficiency required for both students and lecturers;
- University teaching staff need professional development, especially in practising codeswitching in EMI classrooms, in adapting learning materials, and in adopting in ICT-based learning;
- Planning review and revision on current curriculum are needed, in particular regarding a model of assessment to use in an EMI course, and a way to allow for collaborative work between content and English lecturers.

### **7.3 Limitations of the study**

The main limitation in this research relates to the methodology used, and specifically the inability to observe lecturers' actual practices of EMI. In addition, as a case study the findings of this research are not generalisable to other contexts. Further the results are based on a small corpus – voices from lecturers in one state vocational university, so more research is necessary to determine if these results can be generalised to other Indonesian HE institutions on other Indonesian islands – private and government-

owned universities, but particularly those with similar features to the current target University where this study was conducted.

#### **7.4 Recommendations for further research**

Further studies are needed to scrutinise several issues that emerged in the current study. First, there is a need to examine how codeswitching practices should be employed in EMI in this university. Further research is also needed to examine how a parallel language and content approach and other related methods could be applied in the current context. Some other ways of implementing collaborative work between content and language lecturers could also be examined using action research. In addition, the target university could explore and document other potential resources and textbooks that can be used in each course or program.

#### **7.5 Conclusion**

The primary aim of this mixed-methods study was to examine lecturers' understanding of EMI practice at a university in Indonesia, especially related to those terms used to describe it, practical ways to implement EMI in the classrooms, and other issues including the benefit and support necessary for EMI implementation at the target university. A number of methods, such as focus groups, individual interviews, and questionnaires were used to collect data. 21 lecturers participated in focus groups, 5 in individual interviews, and 109 responded to the questionnaire.

Firstly, as the target institution is at an introductory stage of implementing EMI, it was not surprising to find lecturers' lack of understanding about EMI. However, in relation to this initial finding there is a need for clear guidelines to be developed and written by policy makers at the University. Related to this, EMI practice at this university may be enhanced through the use of CLIL pedagogy – it is certainly an approach that would be worthy to consider for the current context. The reasons for this are students' limited English, the goal of improving their English proficiency, and also the dual-focused learning goals. Further, vocabulary teaching and the practice of codeswitching appear to be essential within EMI practice.

Results from this investigation concerning lecturers' perspectives on practising EMI pointed to some implications for EMI teaching staff and the target university. It was suggested that both of these stakeholders need further professional development in EMI pedagogy and its full implications when it is implemented at the University. The provision of this to the lecturers may be expected to assist more successful implementation of EMI at this institution.

Finally, further research has been suggested as essential to enhancing EMI practice in Indonesia as a whole.



## REFERENCES

- Afifah, R. (2012). Bahasa Inggris akan dihapus dari kurikulum SD. *Kompas*.
- Aguilar, M. (2015). Engineering lecturers' views on CLIL and EMI. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 1-14. doi: 10.1080/13670050.2015.1073664
- Aguilar, M., & Rodríguez, R. (2012). Lecturer and student perceptions on CLIL at a Spanish university. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(2), 183-197. doi: 10.1080/13670050.2011.615906
- Airey, J. (2011). Talking about teaching in English: Swedish university lecturers' experiences of changing teaching language. *Ibérica* (22), 35-54.
- AMINEF. (2016). TEFL and other tests. Retrieved on March 15, 2016, from [http://www.aminef.or.id/index.php?option=com\\_content&view=article&id=8&Itemid=145](http://www.aminef.or.id/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=8&Itemid=145)
- Ammon, U. (2001). *The dominance of English as a language of science effects on other languages and language communities / edited by Ulrich Ammon*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Andersen, L.W., & Krathwhol, D.R. (2001). *A taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessing: A revision of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives*. New York: Longman.
- Arif, M. (2013). Bahasa Jawa Banten sebagai muatan lokal Retrieved April 1, 2014, from <https://sites.google.com/site/nimusinstitut/jawa-banten>
- Arnó-Macià, E., & Mancho-Barés, G. (2015). The role of content and language in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) at university: Challenges and implications for ESP. *English for Specific Purposes*, 37, 63-73. doi: 10.1016/j.esp.2014.06.007

- Astika, G., & Wahyana, A. (2012). A case study of the bilingual learning of Science in three SMA RSBI in Central Java. *Litera*, 11(2), 227-242.
- Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee. (2001). The internationalisation of Australian universities. Canberra
- Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (5th ed.). Bristol, UK; Tonawanda, NY: Multilingual Matters.
- Ball, P. (2009). Does CLIL work? In D. Hill & P. Alan (Eds.), *The best of both worlds?: International perspectives on CLIL*. Norwich: Norwich Institute for Language Education.
- BAN-PT. (2016). Akreditasi. Retrieved April 1, 2016, from <http://ban-pt.kemdikbud.go.id/akreditasi>
- Başıbek, N., Dolmacı, M., Cengiz, B. C., Bür, B., Dilek, Y., & Kara, B. (2014). Lecturers' perceptions of English Medium Instruction at Engineering Departments of Higher Education: A study on Partial English Medium Instruction at some state universities in Turkey. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116, 1819-1825. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.01.477
- Bax, S. (2010). Report on EBE in Indonesia. In P. Powell-Davies (Ed.), *Researching English Bilingual Education*. Malaysia: British Council.
- Bell, J. (2005). *Doing your research project: a guide for first-time researchers in education, health and social science / Judith Bell* (4th ed.). England: Open University Press.
- Biesta, G., & Burbules, N. (2003). *Pragmatism and educational research*. Oxford: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.

- Boyce, C., & Neale, P. (2006). Conducting in-depth interviews: A guide for designing and conducting in-depth interviews for evaluation input. Pathfinder International Tool Series, 1-12.
- Bryman, A. (2008). *Social research methods* (3rd ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (1995). Functions of codeswitching in ESL classrooms: Socialising bilingualism in Jaffna. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 16(3), 173-195. doi: 10.1080/01434632.1995.9994599
- Coleman, J., A. (2006). English Medium Instruction in European Higher Education. *Language Teaching*, 39, 1-14.
- Coleman, H. (2009). *Teaching other subjects through English in three Asian nations: A review*. British Council. East Asia.
- Coleman, H. (2011). Allocating resources for English: The case of Indonesia's English medium international standard schools. In H. Coleman (Ed.), *Dreams and realities: Developing countries and the English language*. London: British Council.
- Costa, F., & Coleman, J. A. (2012). A survey of English-medium instruction in Italian higher education. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 16(1), 3-19. doi: 10.1080/13670050.2012.676621
- Council of Europe (2001) *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, and Assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Coyle, D. (2005). Developing CLIL: Towards a theory of practice, APAC Monograph 6, APAC, Barcelona.

- Coyle, D., Hood, P., & Marsh, D. (2010). *CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning*. UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Crandall, J. A., & Tucker, G. R. (1990). Content-based language instruction in second and foreign languages. In S. Anivan (Ed.), *Language teaching methodology in the nineties*. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.
- Creswell, J. W. (2005). *Educational research: planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson-Merrill.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. 4th ed. New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morisson, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education*. 6th ed. London; New York: Routledge.
- Creswell, J. W. (2005). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. (2nd ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Cui, W., & Xiaoqiong, H. (2007). Bilingual instruction in Chinese universities. Changing English. *Changing English: Studies in Culture and Education*, 14(2), 217-229. doi: 10.1080/13586840701443057
- Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, power, and pedagogy; bilingual children in the crossfire*. Clevedon, Buffalo, Toronto, Sydney: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

- Dale, L., & Tanner, R. (2012). *CLIL activities: A resource for subject and language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dalton-Puffer, C. (2007). *Discourse in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classrooms*. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Dalton-Puffer, C. (2011). Content-and-Language Integrated Learning: From Practice to Principles? *Ann Rev Appl Linguist*, 31, 182-204. doi: 10.1017/S0267190511000092
- Delors, J., Al Mufti, I., Amagi, S., Carneiro, R., Chung, F., Geremek, B., Gorham, W.,.....Nanzhao, Z. (1996). *Learning: The treasure within*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Depdiknas (Departemen Pendidikan Nasional). (2007). *Pedoman Penjaminan Mutu Sekolah/Madrasah Bertaraf Internasional Jenjang Pendidikan Dasar dan Menengah*. [Quality Assurance Handbook for Primary and Secondary Policy planning and implementation for International Standard Schools/ Madrasah]. Jakarta
- DeVellis, R. F. (2003). *Scale development: Theory and applications*. Applied social research methods series (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc
- de Zarobe, Y. R., & Jiménez Catalán, R. M. (2009). *Content and language integrated learning: evidence from research in Europe / edited by Yolanda Ruiz de Zarobe and Rosa María Jiménez Catalán*. Bristol, Buffalo: Multilingual Matters.
- Denzin, N. K. (1970). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods / [by] Norman K. Denzin*. Chicago: Aldine Pub. Co.

- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research / editors, Norman K. Denzin, Yvonna S. Lincoln* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications Inc.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). *The handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed.). California, USA: Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks
- Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (2013). *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges*. USA: Multilingual Matters
- Ekman P, Friesen W. (1969). The repertoire of nonverbal behavior: Categories, origins, usage and coding. *Semiotica*, 11, 49-98
- Erlandson, D. A., Harris, E. L., Skipper, B. L., & Allen, S. D. (1993). *Doing naturalistic inquiry: A guide to methods*. Newbury Park, California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Ernanta, T., R., W., Ekatjahjana, W., & Ana, I. B. O. (2013). *Implikasi hukum dihapusnya Rintisan Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional dan Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional oleh mahkamah konstitusi*. Final Project Report Writing. Faculty of Law. University of Jember. Jember.
- Fahmi, M. (2007). Indonesian higher education: The chronicle, recent development and the new legal entity universities. Retrieved from: [http://www.academia.edu/10579417/Indonesian\\_Higher\\_Education\\_The\\_Chronicle\\_Recent\\_Development\\_and\\_The\\_New\\_Legal\\_Entity\\_Universities](http://www.academia.edu/10579417/Indonesian_Higher_Education_The_Chronicle_Recent_Development_and_The_New_Legal_Entity_Universities)
- Field, A. P. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS / Andy Field* (2nd ed.). London: London: Sage Publications Inc.
- Floris, F. D. (2014). Learning subject matter through English as the medium of instruction: students' and teachers' perspectives. *Asian Englishes*, 16(1), 47-59. doi: 10.1080/13488678.2014.884879

- Flowerdew, J., Li, D., & Miller, L. (1998). Attitudes towards English and Cantonese among Hong Kong Chinese University Lecturers. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(2), 201-231. doi: 10.2307/3587582
- Fraenkel, R., & Wallen, N.E. (2009). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. (7th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Garcia, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st Century: A global perspective*. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell Publishing.
- Garcia, O., & Baker, C. (2007). *Bilingual Education: An introductory reader* (O. Garcia & C. Baker Eds.). Clevedon, Buffalo, Toronto: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Garcia, O., & Leiva, C. (2013). Theorizing and enacting translanguaging for social Justice.” In A. Cresse & A. Blackledge (Eds), *Heteroglossia as practice and pedagogy*, 99–216. New York: Springer.
- Garcia, O., & Sylvan, C. E. (2011). Pedagogies and practices in multilingual classrooms: Singularities in pluralities. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95, 385–400. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01208.x
- Gill, S. K. (2004). Medium-of-instruction policy in higher education in Malaysia: Nationalism versus internationalization. In J. W. Tollefson & A. B. M. Tsui (Eds.), *Medium of instruction policies - Which agenda? whose agenda?* (pp. 135–52). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Gill, S. K. (2006). Change in Language Policy in Malaysia: The Reality of Implementation in Public Universities. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 7(1), 82-94. doi: 10.2167/cilp083.0
- Gill, S. K., & Kirkpatrick, A. (2013). English in Asian and European higher education. Retrieved from <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/store/10.1002/9781405198431/asset/homepag>

es/3\_English\_in\_Asian\_and\_European\_Higher\_Education.pdf?v=1&s=4c49dc8642113e36a4e3bf192876688ba8addaa2

Goodman, B. A. (2014). Implementing English as a medium of instruction in a Ukrainian University: Challenges, adjustments, and opportunities. *International Journal of Pedagogies and Learning*, 9(2), 130-141. doi: 10.1080/18334105.2014.11082026

Graddol, D. (2006). Next English: Why global English may mean the end of 'English as a Foreign Language'. In D. Graddol (Ed.). England: British Council.

Hadisantosa, N. (2010). Insights from Indonesia. In R. Johnstone (Ed.), *Learning through English: Policies, challenges, and prospects*. Malaysia: British Council.

Hallet, E. E. (2005). Most Indonesian schools struggling with bilingual education issue. *The Jakarta Post*. Retrieved from <http://jawawa.id/index.php/newsitem/most-indonesian-schools-struggling-with-bilingual-education-issue-1447893297>

Hamid, M. O., Nguyen, H. T. M., & Baldauf, R. B., Jr. (2013). Medium of Instruction in Asia: Context, processes and outcomes. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 14(1), 1-15. doi: 10.1080/14664208.2013.792130

Hernandez-Nanclares, N., & Jimenez-Munoz, A. (2015). English as a medium of instruction: Evidence for language and content targets in bilingual education in economics. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 1-14. doi: 10.1080/13670050.2015.1125847

Henderson, J.G. & Kesson, K.R. (2004). *Curriculum wisdom: Educational decisions in democratic societies*. Upper Saddle River, NY: Pearson

Holstein, J. A., & Gubrium, J. F. (2003). *Postmodern interviewing / Jaber F. Gubrium, James A. Holstein editors*. Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage.



- Hossain, S., Shamim, K., Shahana, N., Habib, M. A., & Rahman, A. (2011). Is English as a Medium of Instruction: Problem for undergraduate medical students? *Journal of Armed Forces Medical College, Bangladesh*, 6(2), 32-36. doi: 10.3329/jafmc.v6i2.7272
- Hou, A. Y. C., Morse, R., Chiang, C.-L., & Chen, H.-J. (2013). Challenges to quality of English Medium Instruction degree programs in Taiwanese universities and the role of local accreditors: A perspective of non-English-speaking asian country. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 14(3), 359-370. doi: 10.1007/s12564-013-9267-8
- Howitt, D., & Cramer, D. (2014). *Introduction to research methods in psychology* (Fourth ed.). New York: Pearson.
- Jenkins, J. (2003). *World Englishes: A resource book for students*. USA; Canada: Routledge.
- Jenkins, J., Cogo, A., & Dewey, M. (2011). Review of developments in research into English as a lingua franca. *Language Teaching*, 44(03), 281-315. doi: doi:10.1017/S0261444811000115
- Jensen, C., & Thøgersen, J. (2011). Danish University lecturers' attitudes towards English as the medium of instruction. *Ibérica*, 22, 13.
- Jewitt, C. (2014). *The Routledge handbook of multimodal analysis / Edited by Carey Jewitt* (Second ed.). Milton Park, Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.
- Joe, Y., & Lee, H.-K. (2013). Does English-Medium nstruction benefit students in EFL contexts? A case study of medical students in Korea. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 22(2), 201-207. doi: 10.1007/s40299-012-0003-7

- Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2012). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative and mixed approaches* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(7), 14-26. doi: 10.2307/3700093
- Johnson, R., K., & Swain, M. (1997). *Immersion education: International perspectives*. Cambridge, New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Kam, H. W. (2002). English language teaching in East Asia today: An overview. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 22(2), 1-22. doi: 10.1080/0218879020220203
- Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan. (2013). *Struktur kurikulum, kompetensi inti, kompetensi dasar*. Jakarta.
- Kendon, A. (1997). Gesture. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 26, 109-128.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2009). Students' and lecturers' perceptions of the effectiveness of foreign language instruction in an English-medium university in Turkey. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 14(1), 81-93. doi: 10.1080/13562510802602640
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2012). English in ASEAN: Implications for regional multilingualism. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 33(4), 331-344. doi: 10.1080/03043790110054409
- Klaassen, R. G., & De Graaff, E. (2001). Facing innovation: Preparing lecturers for English-medium instruction in a non-native context. *European Journal of Engineering Education*, 26(3), 281-289. doi: 10.1080/03043790110054409
- Klaassen, R. G., & De Graaff, E. (2001). Facing innovation: Preparing lecturers for English-medium instruction in a non-native context. *European Journal of Engineering Education*, 26(3), 281-289. doi: 10.1080/03043790110054409

- Knight, J. (2003). Updated definition of internationalisation, *International Higher Education*, 33 (Fall).
- Krashen, S. D. (1987). Second language acquisition theory. In S. D. Krashen (Ed.), *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. England: Prentice-Hall International
- Krueger, R. A. (2009). *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research* / Richard A. Krueger, Mary Anne Casey (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications Inc.
- Kuhn, T. S. (1970). *The structure of scientific revolutions* (2nd ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Lasagabaster, D. (2008). Foreign language competence in content and language integrated learning. *Open Applied Linguistics Journal*, 1, 31–42.
- Lasagabaster, D. (2011). English achievement and student motivation in CLIL and EFL settings. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 5(1), 3-18. doi: 10.1080/17501229.2010.519030
- Lasagabaster, D. (2013). The Use of L1 in CLIL Classes: The teachers' perspective. *Latin American Journal of Content and Language Learning*, 6(2), 1-21. doi: 10.5294/lacil.2013.6.2.1
- Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (2010). Immersion and CLIL in English: More differences than similarities. *ELT Journal*, 64(4), 367-375. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccp082
- Lin, A. M. Y. (2015). Conceptualising the potential role of L1 in CLIL. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 28(1), 74-89. doi: 10.1080/07908318.2014.1000926
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, Calif: Sage Publications.

- Maiworm, F., & Wächter, B. (2002). English-language-taught degree programmes in European higher education: Trends and success factors. *ACA Papers on International Cooperation in Education*. Germany: Lemmens.
- Marsh, D., Marshland, B., & Stenberg, K. (2001). CLIL compendium. Profiling European CLIL classrooms. Jyväskylä: University of Jyväskylä.
- Martinez, R. (2014). Vocabulary and formulaic language: Where to begin? In Macaro D. Patricia, Ernesto, and Swarbrick (Eds.) *Debates in Modern Languages Education*. Hoboken: Francis and Taylor.
- Massler, U. Stotz, D., & Queisser, C. (2014). Assessment instruments for primary CLIL: The conceptualisation and evaluation of test tasks. *The Language Learning Journal*, 42, 137–150. doi:10.1080/09571736.2014.891371
- Mehisto, P., Marsh, D., & Frigols, M. J. (2008). *Uncovering CLIL: Content and language integrated learning in bilingual and multilingual education*. Oxford: Macmillan Education.
- Met, M. (1998). Curriculum decision-making in content-based language teaching. In J. Cenoz & F. Genesee (Eds.), *Beyond bilingualism: Multilingualism and multilingual education* (pp. 35–63). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: a source for new methods* (2nd ed.). California: Sage Publications.
- Morgado, M., & Coelho, M. (2013). CLIL vs English as the medium of instruction: The Portuguese higher education polytechnic context. *Egitania Scientia* (12), 123 - 145.

- Morgan, D. L. (2007). Paradigms lost and pragmatism regained: Methodological implications of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 48-76.
- Nasir, M. (2015) 'Bilingual curriculum to be compulsory in universities starting from 2016'. Retrieved from <http://m.thejakartapost.com/news/2015/11/30/bilingual-curriculum-be-compulsory-universities-starting-2016.html>
- Nizam. (2006). *Indonesia Higher education in South-east Asia*. Thailand: the UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education.
- Normand-Marconnet, N. (2013). French bilingual classes in Vietnam: Issues and debates about an innovative language curriculum. *Language and Education*, 1-14. doi: 10.1080/09500782.2012.754462
- O'Halloran, K. L., Tan, S., & K.L.E, M. (2014). Multimodal pragmatics. In K. P. Schneider & A. Barron (Eds.), *Pragmatics of Discourse* (Vol. 3). Berlin/Boston: de Gruyter Mouton.
- Pajares, F. (1992). Teachers' belief and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, 62(3), 307-332.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2014). Teacher training needs for bilingual education: In-service teacher perceptions. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 19(3), 266-295. doi: 10.1080/13670050.2014.980778
- Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. London: Oxford University Press
- Pontianak State Polytechnic. (2015a). *Vision and Mission*. Retrieved April 13, 2015, from <http://io.polnep.ac.id/about-polnep/vision-and-mission>

Pontianak State Polytechnic. (2015b). *International Office*. Retrieved April 13, 2015, from <http://io.polnep.ac.id>

Pontianak State Polytechnic. (2015c). *Polnep signed MoU with University College of Technology Sarawak*. Retrieved April 13, 2015, from <http://io.polnep.ac.id/polnep-signed-mou-with-university-college-of-technology-sarawak>

Pontianak State Polytechnic. (2015d). *Polnep signed MoU with Kapi'olani Community College of Hawaii University and Highline Community College*. Retrieved April 13, 2015, from <http://io.polnep.ac.id/polnep-signed-mou-with-kapiolani-community-college-of-hawaii-university-and-highline-community-college>

Pontianak State Polytechnic. (2015e). *The profile*. Retrieved April 13, 2015, from <http://io.polnep.ac.id/about-polnep/profile>

Sailah, I. (2014). *Buku Kurikulum Pendidikan Tinggi*. Jakarta.

Saldana, J. (2009). *Coding manual for qualitative researchers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Seikkula-Leino, J. (2007). CLIL Learning: Achievement levels and affective factors. *Language and Education*, 21(4), 328-341. doi: 10.2167/le635.0

Silverman, D. (1997). *Qualitative research: Theory, method, and practice*. London, Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage Publications.

Simbolon, N. E. (2015). Using the CBI method in teaching English in an Indonesian university. *JSSH*, 23 (4), 1211-1224.

Smyth, W. J. (2014). *Doing critical education research: A conversation with the research*. New York: Peter Lang.

- Soejatminah, S. (2009). Internationalisation of Indonesian higher education: A study from the periphery. *Asian Social Science*, 5(9), 70-78.
- Stake, R. E. (2000). Case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed.). California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Stoller, F. L. (2008). Content-based instruction. In N. Van Deusen-Scholl & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education*. Vol. 4: Second and foreign language education (pp. 59–70). New York: Springer.
- Stewart, D. W., Shamdasani, P. N., & Rook, D. W. (2007). *Focus groups: Theory and practice* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California, London: SAGE.
- Stryker, S. B., & Leaver, B. L. (1997). *Content-based instruction in foreign language education: Models and methods*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.
- Sultan, S., Borland, H., & Eckersley, B. (2012). *English medium of instruction (EMI) in Indonesian public junior secondary school: Student's language use, attitudes/motivation and foreign language outcomes*. Paper presented at the ACTA International Conference, Cairns, Australia.
- Sumitomo, B., Said, H., & Mislán, N. (2012). Constraints and improvement: A case study of the Indonesia's international standard school in improving its capacity building. *Journal of education and Learning*, 6 (1), 22-31.
- Swain, M. (1988). Manipulating and complementing content teaching to maximize Second Language Learning. *TESL Canada Journal*, 6(1), 68-83.
- Tadjudin. (2005). Higher education in Indonesia and the role of cross border higher education.
- Tatzl, D. (2011). English-medium masters' programmes at an Austrian university of

applied sciences: Attitudes, experiences and challenges. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10(4), 252-270.

Tavares, N. J. (2015). How Strategic Use of L1 in an L2-Medium Mathematics Classroom Facilitates L2 Interaction and Comprehension. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 18(3), 319-335. doi: 10.1080/13670050.2014.988115

The Law of Higher Education of 2012 Number 12 [Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor UU Perguruan Tinggi Tahun 2012 No. 12 tentang Pendidikan Tinggi]. Jakarta.

The Law of Regional Autonomy of 1999 Number 22 [Undang-Undang Nomor 22 Tahun 1999 tentang Pemerintahan Daerah]. Jakarta

The Law of National Education System of 2003 [Undang- Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 20 Tahun 2003 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional]. Jakarta.

The Ministerial Regulation of 2005 Number 19 on National Education Standards [Peraturan Pemerintah Republik Indonesia Nomor 19 Tahun 2005 tentang Standar Nasional Pendidikan]. Jakarta

The Ministerial Regulation of 2014 Number 49 on Graduate Competency Standards [Peraturan Pemerintah Republik Indonesia Nomor 49 Tahun 2014 tentang Standar Nasional Perguruan Tinggi]. Jakarta

The Regulation of Education and Culture Minister of 2014 Number 79 on the Local Content of Curriculum 2013 [Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan No. 79 Tahun 2014 Tentang Muatan Lokal Kurikulum 2013]. Jakarta

Trochim, W. M. K., & Donnelly, J. P. (2008). *Research methods knowledge base* (3rd ed.). Mason, Ohio: Atomic Dog/Cengage Learning.

University of Ciputra (2016). *Double Degree Program*. Retrieved February 3, 2016,



from <http://ibm.uc.ac.id/network-and-facilities/double-degree-program/>

Universitas Gadjah Mada. (2016). *Office of International Affairs*. Retrieved February 3, 2016, from <http://oia.ugm.ac.id/studying-at-ugm/international-undergraduate-program>

Universitas Indonesia. (2016a). *International Office*. Retrieved February 3, 2016, from <http://international.ui.ac.id>

Universitas Indonesia. (2016b). *Kelas Internasional*. Retrieved March 19, 2016 from <http://www.ui.ac.id/akademik/kelas-internasional.html>

University of Kristen Satya Wacaya. (2016). *International Programs*. Retrieved February 3, 2016 from < <http://international.uksw.edu/for-international-students/>>

Universitas Negeri Medan, (2016). *Jurusan dan Program Studi*. Retrieved from February 3, 2016 from <http://fmipa.unimed.ac.id/jurusan.html>

Universitas Negeri Semarang. (2016), *Kelas Bilingual Fakultas Ekonomi Unnes*. Retrieved February 3, 2016 from <http://akuntansi.unnes.ac.id/?p=430>

Vinke, A. A., J. Snippe, and W. Jochems. (1998). English-medium content courses in non-English higher education: A study of lecturer experiences and teaching behaviours. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 3(3), 383-94. doi:10.1080/1356215980030307.

Wächter, B., & Maiworm, F. (2008). English-taught programmes in European higher education: The picture in 2007. *ACA Papers on International Cooperation in Education*. Bonn: Lemmens.

Welch, A. (2012). The limits of regionalism in Indonesian higher education. *Asian Education and Development Studies*, 1(1), 24-42.

- Wegner, A. (2012). Seeing the bigger picture: What students and teachers think about CLIL. *International CLIL Research Journal*, 4(1), 29 - 35.
- Wells, G. (1999). *Dialogic inquiry: Towards a sociocultural practice and theory of education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Werther, C., Denver, L., Jensen, C., & Mees, I. M. (2014). Using English as a medium of instruction at university level in Denmark: the lecturer's perspective. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 35(5), 443-462. doi: 10.1080/01434632.2013.868901
- Whitehead, D. (2010). *English bilingual education in East Asia: Rationales, reality, risks and rewards*. Paper presented at the International Conference on Language, Education, and the Millenium Development Goals (MDGs), Thailand.
- Wilkinson, R. (2004). *Integrating content and language: Meeting the challenge of a multilingual higher education*. The Netherlands: Maastricht University.
- Yang, W. (2015). Content and Language Integrated Learning next in Asia: Evidence of learners' achievement in CLIL education from a Taiwan tertiary degree programme. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 18(4), 361-382. doi: 10.1080/13670050.2014.904840
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th ed. Vol. 5). USA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Yin, R. K., & Davis, D. (2007). Adding new dimensions to case study evaluations: The case of evaluating comprehensive reforms. *New Directions for Evaluation*, 2007, 75-93. doi: 10.1002/ev.216
- Zacharias, N. T. (2013). Navigating through the English-medium-of-instruction policy: voices from the field. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 14(1), 93-108. doi: 10.1080/14664208.2013.782797

*Every reasonable effort has been made to acknowledge the owners of copyright material. I would be pleased to hear from any copyright owner who has been omitted or incorrectly acknowledged*

## **APPENDIX 1**

### **FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW PROTOCOL**

Groups 1, 2, 3, 4: groups of lecturers without EMI teaching experience

Brainstorming:

1. What do you know about EMI? (Who practises, the reasons for practising it)

Core:

Category 1: teachers

1. How is the presentation of EMI practice in the classroom like?
2. How are the learning materials prepared?
3. What do you think about translating the learning materials?
4. Content and language, which is the focus of EMI practice?
5. What do you think about supporting students' L2 learning?
6. What do you think about collaboration between language and content lecturers?
7. How can the teachers be supported to perform this particular task of teaching?
8. What do you think about the way in assessing the students learning?

Category 2: students

1. How can the students benefit with EMI practice?
2. What can be the challenges of EMI for the students?
3. How can the students be supported to cope with the challenges?

Category 3: Institution

1. What are the roles of the institution to support the implementation of EMI practice?
- 2.

Closing:

1. How would you feel if you are asked to practise EMI? Why do you feel so?

Groups 5: the group of lecturers with EMI teaching experience

Brainstorming:

1. How do you practise EMI?

Core:

Category 1: teachers

1. How do you present your teaching with EMI?
2. How do you provide/prepare the learning materials?
3. What is the biggest challenge of practising EMI in the classroom
4. How did you assess students' performance/learning? Why?
5. How do you support students' L2 learning?
6. How can you improve your teaching in EMI practice?
7. Between content and language, which one do you think the focus of EMI practice is?
8. What do you think about collaboration between language and content lecturers?
9. What support do you think the teachers need to perform EMI practice?

Category 2: students

1. How do the students react when you practise EMI?
2. What are the challenges faced by the students in EMI classroom?
3. In what ways do you support students' facing the obstacles? Why?
4. What is the ideal situation for EMI practice?

Category 3: Institution

1. What do you think about the institution support need to provide when you practise EMI?
- 2.

Closing:

1. How do you feel when you practised EMI? Why?
2. What is the future prospect for EMI practice in this institution?

**APPENDIX 2**  
**INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW PROTOCOL**

1. Regarding the adjunct model of EMI, how would practice this in the classroom?
2. How would you assess what the students have achieved during the learning?
3. How would feel about this implementation of this practice?
4. How would feel when you have to share the responsibility with the English lecturer?

### APPENDIX 3

#### STATISTICAL RESULTS FOR THE QUESTIONNAIRE

	Statements	M	SD	1	2	3	4
				SA F1 (%)	A F2 (%)	D F3 (%)	SD F4 (%)
1.	EMI practice is suitable for the courses I teach	2.04	0.54	11.9	73.4	13.8	0.9
2.	EMI and bilingual classes refer to the same practice	2.12	0.57	8.3	74.3	14.7	2.8
3.	EMI practice and international classes are the same thing	2.2	0.61	8.3	61.5	24.8	1.8
4.	EMI practice should be introduced gradually	1.52	0.6	52.3	44	2.8	0.9
5.	EMI practice should use both English and Indonesian languages	1.79	0.68	34.9	52.3	11.9	0.9
6.	Indonesian (the students' first language - L1) should be used for the purposes of translation during EMI practice	1.9	0.67	26.6	57.8	14.7	0.9
7.	L1 should be used for the delivery of key content during EMI practice	2	0.7	22	59.6	19.3	1.8
8.	Current textbooks are used for EMI practice without translating them into Indonesian	2.17	0.74	18.3	47.7	32.1	1.9
9.	To practice EMI, learning materials such modules and handouts need to be presented in both English and Indonesian versions.	1.95	0.73	29.4	46.8	23.9	0
10.	Multimedia learning materials are necessary for use in EMI classroom	1.52	0.54	49.5	48.6	1.8	0
11.	EMI practice can improve students' English proficiency	1.46	0.55	56	43.1	0	0.9
12.	EMI practice can increase students' learning motivation	1.93	0.7	26.6	56	15.6	1.8
13.	EMI practice can improve lecturers' English proficiency	1.49	0.57	54.1	44	0.9	0.9
14.	EMI practice can improve lecturers' teaching skills	2.1	0.73	22.9	49.5	26.6	0.9
15.	Through EMI practice, students' opportunities in the job markets are greater	1.73	0.63	35.8	56	7.3	0.9
16.	Having an EMI program will improve the University certification	1.72	0.61	35.8	56	8.3	0
17.	Collaborative work between content and English lecturers is necessary in practising EMI	1.69	0.68	42.2	47.7	9.2	0.9
18.	Parallel classes of EMI are potential to implement at the University	1.96	0.47	12.8	78	9.2	0
19.	A bridging course program for the students is necessary for EMI practice	1.73	0.56	31.2	65.1	2.8	0.9
20.	EMI practice requires students to have a minimum English proficiency	1.71	0.61	36.7	56.9	5.5	0.9
21.	International events for students and lecturers are necessary to support EMI practice	1.51	0.57	53.2	43.1	3.7	0
22.	EMI practice should be supported by adopting a content-based English course	1.75	0.61	33	59.6	6.4	0.9
23.	The number of English course hours should be increased in order to support EMI practice	2.12	0.72	19.3	50.5	29.4	0.9
24.	40% total academic grade of an EMI course should be from students' attendance and participation in classroom.	2.13	0.61	11.9	64.2	22.9	0.9
25.	To practice EMI in my course/s, only English should be used for assessment purposes	2.2	0.62	9.2	63.3	25.7	1.8

(M = Mean, SD= Standard Deviation; F= Frequency, e.g. F1 = Frequency in scale 1)  
(SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree)



## APPENDIX 4

### FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE ITEMS IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Item	Scale					
Number	1	2	3	4	5	6
12BE	.724					
14BE	.720					
13BE	.625	.575				
10PR	.567					
15BE	.567					
17SU	.482			.467		
20SU		.808				
22SU		.703				
19SU		.685		.430		
21SU		.630				
11BE	.581					
5PR			.821			
6PR			.766			
7TP			.758			
2TR			.623			
9TP			.614			
4TP			.417			
3TR				.703		
25TP				.699		
18SU				.503		
24TP					.770	
23SU					.626	
16BE					.612	
1TP						.785
8TP						.566

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

## APPENDIX 5

### INFORMATION SHEET (FOR INTERVIEWS)

Title of Project: Lecturers' perspectives on English medium instruction (EMI) practice in Indonesian higher education

The aims of the project are to investigate lecturers' perspectives on the practice of English medium instruction (EMI) in an Indonesian university and examine the implications of those perspectives for the further implementation of EMI in Indonesian higher education.

For the purpose of the study, we ask to audio record and document your opinion on the research topic. During the focus groups and in-depth interviews, the researcher will be in the room working as the moderator and the interviewer. During the survey, the appointed university administrator will distribute the questionnaire.

Your participation in this research is purely voluntary, and you may refuse to participate or to withdraw at any time without consequence or prejudice. All personal information and details gathered during the recording will be utilised anonymously. In addition, all audio tapes and transcripts will be kept confidentially and stored for a period of at least five years on completion of this research.

Researcher's contact details:

Name: Nurmala Elmin Simbolon

Mobile: +61 402 441 124

E-mail: n.simbolon@postgrad.curtin.edu.au

n.simbolon@gmx.com

Researcher Supervisor

Name: Assoc Prof Kay O'Halloran

Phone: +61 8 9266 2182

E-mail: Kay.Ohalloran@curtin.edu.au

*This study has been approved under Curtin University's process for lower-risk Studies (Approval Number EDU-136-13). This process complies with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (Chapter 5.1.7 and Chapters 5.1.18-5.1.21).*

*For further information on this study contact the researchers named above or the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee. c/- Office of Research and Development, Curtin University, GPO Box U1987, Perth 6845 or by telephoning 9266 9223 or by emailing hrec@curtin.edu.au.*

## APPENDIX 6

### INFORMATION SHEET (FOR QUESTIONNAIRE)

Title of Project: Lecturers' perspectives on English medium instruction (EMI) practice in Indonesian higher education

The aims of the project are to investigate lecturers' perspectives on the practice of English medium instruction (EMI) in an Indonesian university and examine the implications of those perspectives for the further implementation of EMI in Indonesian higher education.

For the purpose of the study, we ask you to complete a brief questionnaire. Kristina Novalina Nainggolan will administer the questionnaire survey. It will take about 15 minutes to complete it and this can be done at a time convenient for you at your university. Before returning the completed questionnaire to her, please put it along with both versions of the consent form into the envelope provided and then seal this to ensure confidentiality.

Your participation in this research is purely voluntary, and you may refuse to participate or to withdraw at any time without consequence or prejudice. All personal information and details gathered during the recording will be utilised anonymously. In addition, the questionnaire will be kept confidential and stored for a period of at least five years on completion of this research.

Researcher's contact details:

Name: Nurmala Elmin Simbolon

Mobile: +61 402 441 124

E-mail: n.simbolon@postgrad.curtin.edu.au

simbolon73@gmail.com

Researcher Supervisor

Name: Professor Rhonda Oliver

Phone: +61 8 9266 2169

E-mail: Rhonda.Oliver@curtin.edu.au

*This study has been approved under Curtin University's process for lower-risk Studies (Approval Number EDU-136-13). This process complies with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (Chapter 5.1.7 and Chapters 5.1.18-5.1.21).*

*For further information on this study contact the researchers named above or the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee. c/- Office of Research and Development, Curtin University, GPO Box U1987, Perth 6845 or by telephoning 9266 9223 or by emailing [hrec@curtin.edu.au](mailto:hrec@curtin.edu.au).*

**APPENDIX 7**  
**CONSENT FORM (FOR INTERVIEWS)**

Title of Project: Lecturers' perspectives on English medium instruction (EMI) practice in Indonesian higher education.

I have been informed of and understand the purpose of the study. I have been given an opportunity to ask questions. I understand I can withdraw at any time without prejudice. Any information which might potentially identify me will not be used in published materials. I agree to participate in this study as outlined to me.

Name of participant: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Researcher's contact details:

Name: Nurmala Elmin Simbolon

Mobile: +61 402 441 124

E-mail: n.simbolon@postgrad.curtin.edu.au  
n.simbolon@gmx.com

Researcher Supervisor

Name: Assoc Prof Kay O'Halloran

Phone: +61 8 9266 2182

E-mail: Kay.Ohalloran@curtin.edu.au

*This study has been approved under Curtin University's process for lower-risk Studies (Approval Number EDU-136-13). This process complies with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (Chapter 5.1.7 and Chapters 5.1.18-5.1.21).*

*For further information on this study contact the researchers named above or the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee. c/- Office of Research and Development, Curtin University, GPO Box U1987, Perth 6845 or by telephoning 9266 9223 or by emailing hrec@curtin.edu.au.*

**APPENDIX 8**  
**CONSENT FORM (FOR QUESTIONNAIRE)**

Title of Project: Lecturers' perspectives on English medium instruction (EMI) practice in Indonesian higher education.

I have been informed of and understand the purpose of the study. I have been given an opportunity to ask questions. I understand I can withdraw at any time without prejudice. Any information which might potentially identify me will not be used in published materials. I agree to participate in this study as outlined to me.

Name of participant: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Researcher's contact details:

Name: Nurmala Elmin Simbolon

Mobile: +61 402 441 124

E-mail: n.simbolon@postgrad.curtin.edu.au  
simbolon73@gmail.com

Researcher Supervisor

Name: Professor Rhonda Oliver

Phone: +61 8 9266 2169

E-mail: Rhonda.Oliver@curtin.edu.au

*This study has been approved under Curtin University's process for lower-risk Studies (Approval Number EDU-136-13). This process complies with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (Chapter 5.1.7 and Chapters 5.1.18-5.1.21).*

*For further information on this study contact the researchers named above or the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee. c/- Office of Research and Development, Curtin University, GPO Box U1987, Perth 6845 or by telephoning 9266 9223 or by emailing hrec@curtin.edu.au.*